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Americanism in Education

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There seems to be little doubt that there are a large number of people in this country who are so extreme in their political affiliations, either rightist or leftist, that they are completely out of tune with American traditions. This seems to be generally true even if we discount the large amount of name-calling and mud-throwing for political effect. Some people could be described as un-American and others as anti-American. We who are engaged in the business of teaching American history to elementary or high school pupils can hardly help wondering if we are permitting young people to leave school without a proper appreciation of our great country.

"You will agree with me in opinion . . . that by teaching the people themselves to know and to value their own rights, to discriminate the spirit of liberty from that of licentiousness, cherishing the first and avoiding the last, it contributes in various ways" [to the security of a free constitution]; thus wrote George Washington. There can be no argument on that score. Just how to attain this objective is something else again. That is, in fact, where our shoe pinches. It is quite obvious to us now that we need to do more than teach and memorize the oath of allegiance. It could be that schools have been content with the flag-waving type of patriotism while in the hearts of pupils have been cynicism or bitterness towards government. It could be, too, that in many other instances of true patriotism in the hearts and minds of pupils, they have gone out into an undemocratic community and lost all zeal for democracy learned at school. Then, perhaps, there are school administrators who spoil some good indoctrination for democracy done in class rooms, by dictatorial methods. In other words,

it takes a good home, a good community, and a good school to make genuine American citizens.

That sounds very simple. It sounds as if we know just how to teach history and citizenship. We don't. Take the case of Johann Gottlieb Fichte. He was a highly respected German philosopher. He lived through a period of humiliating conquest of his country by a dictator named Napoleon Bonaparte. This experience plus his reading of Schopenhauer led him to the conception of a Utopian state, organized on principles of pure reason, but actually being a pure despotism. This idea of dictatorship has become notorious the world over. History lessons in the public schools of Prussia were made up in the form of lectures by the minister of education and were memorized by pupils in the entire state. A half century later Germany came back and defeated France in a manner fully as humiliating as Napoleon. This sweet revenge was no doubt due in large measure to the amalgamation of all Germans from some eighty small states into a nation through a quasi-state worship that Fichte dreamed up. Germans are now reaping the harvest of this curse of nationalism. Someone should tell the Russians!

If our Constitution had been drawn up at a later date, say about 1815, it would no doubt have provided for a national system of education. The founding fathers of that era would have been imbued with a spirit of nationalism which swept our entire population following the War of 1812. They had witnessed, like Fichte, the tremendous power of education to unify a nation. They would never have left this important function up to the states. In fact some of the more far-seeing delegates back in 1787 had thought about it then. Just three days

before the Constitutional Convention adjourned, on September 14, 1787, Madison moved that a national university be established. Six states voted against the motion, and four states for it. Connecticut's vote was split, Johnson voted "yes," but Sherman voted "no" because he "thought it was sufficient that this power should be exercised by the states in their separate capacity." John Adams was the first to bring it up. He wrote a letter dated September 5, 1780, from Amsterdam, to the president of the Congress under the Articles of Confederation, advising that such a national university ought to be established.

John Jay wrote to Witherspoon on April 6, 1784: "Education of our citizens ought no longer to be regarded in the light of mere private corporations." To Benjamin Rush he wrote as follows: "I consider knowledge to be the soul of a republic and as the weak and the wicked are generally in alliance, as much care should be taken to diminish the number of the former as of the latter." George Washington wasn't sure of himself in his first annual message: "Whether this desirable object will be best promoted by affording aids to seminaries already established, by the institution of a national university, or by other expedients, will be well worthy of a place in the deliberations of the legislature." In his second annual message, on December 7, 1796, he wrote with a little more assurance: "Amongst the motives to such an institution the assimilation of the principles, opinions, and manner of our countrymen, by the common education of a portion of our youth from every quarter well deserves attention. The more homogeneous our citizens can be made in these particulars, the greater will be our prospect of permanent union."

Education in those days was such a formal thing. There couldn't be much Americanism in such frigid atmosphere as the schoolrooms presented in 1800. It seems almost pathetic now, to think about the many tiny colleges dotting the western states just emerging from the wilderness and their only contribution to the local life was a sort of mental gymnastics found in mathematics courses, and a wrestling with ancient languages. Undoubtedly many of the patriots could see no point in nationalizing education as long as it was aimless anyway.

The motion for a national university came up again and again; Presidents Jefferson, John Quincy Adams, and Monroe all included such requests and recommendations in their messages to Congress. The nearest we came to having a national university was the Smithsonian Institution. The Smithson bequest was thoroughly debated in Congress in 1836 and 1837. The ugly clouds of sectionalism and Civil War had begun to gather. The need for Americanism in education was now plain as the nose on your face. Webster, in his famous reply to Hayne, had mentioned the higher percentage of children in the newer western states and their need for government aid for education there: "Whatever the government can fairly do towards these objects, in my opinion, ought to be done," he said. A labor convention in Philadelphia in 1839 asked for a "democratic republican education which regards all the children as equals." Alden Partridge, president of Norwich University, Vermont, sent a petition to Congress on January 21, 1841, praying "for the establishment of a general system of education for the benefit of the youth of this nation."

Although the government took no action, at least there has been a change in the point of view here. Leaders seem to think in terms of the elementary school now. That's where real Americanism begins anyhow. It is strange that none of the early patriots thought of the elementary school. They all wanted to start training citizens from the top down—all except Jefferson, that is. When Thomas Jefferson became Vice-President in 1800, he requested one Du Pont de Nemours, a refugee from the revolutionary disorders in Paris, to draw up a plan of practical education for the United States. He took his job too seriously. He drew up an elaborate Utopian scheme of education from kindergarten through the university, so elaborate in fact, that nothing ever came of it. Nobody cared much for little children, anyway; the university was the thing. In the progressive 1830's, things changed. Horace Mann won a great battle for better schools. The curriculum was changed to fit the needs of the people more than it had ever been before. Among other things a course in United States history was made part of the basic knowledge of all pupils. The states at last had taken up the cudgel. Am-

ericanism was taught in elementary schools at last.

But it was a Prussian type of super-patriotism. Our heroes were made into tin gods. Horace Mann had borrowed too much on his trip to Germany. It was a good thing the schools were left to state control after all. A national system of education with a master race complex would have been as disastrous for us as for Germany. The Civil War spurred on a greater emphasis upon Americanism in education. The federal government came through with land grants for colleges in various states. By the time the one hundredth anniversary of the signing of the Declaration of Independence came around, we were quite well indoctrinated. A French Commission visiting the Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia in 1876, reported that "If there be a nation which has expected everything from this power of education, which has intimately united its national destinies with the development of its schools . . . that nation is certainly the people of the United States." Somebody should have warned us that we might be getting off on the wrong foot. Somebody did. Many writers did. That is the advantage of being a free country; people aren't afraid to speak up when our country tends to stray. Mr. J. N. Scott, among others, wrote a book, *Patriots in the Making*, in which he warned that America is tending toward state worship as Germany has done in the past. Not to forget that Germany, herself, had prophets.

Take the case of Leopold von Ranke. He was a highly respected German historian. His idea was that history should be taught just as it happens without any special emphasis or color-

ing of any of the facts. This made of history a great science to be sure, but took out most of the human interest, and made of it a cold, factual recital of events. It became a sort of chronology that was too dull for the elementary pupils in school. It is significant to mention at this point that UNESCO bravely decided one of its first duties would be an inspection of history books used the world over to recommend the rooting out of teaching narrow patriotism that paves the way for future wars. After the first World War, the pendulum had swung pretty far in this direction in America. The teaching of true Americanism then seemed to consist chiefly in debunking all the legends that had grown up around our patriots. Plenty of new literature appeared which helped this process of belittling our past and of depicting only the seamy side of life. Obviously this can be entertaining for adults but also very damaging to young Americans that are forced to hear it every day. The 1920's were at the other extreme and perhaps we are reaping the harvest of cynics which this decade graduated. There can be little doubt that there are a large number of people in this country who are so extreme in their political affiliations that they are out of tune with American traditions. Somewhere between these two extremes of Johann Gottlieb Fichte and his glorification of the state, on the one hand, and that of Leopold von Ranke and his cold, factual history, on the other hand, must be a great middle ground of useful, wholesome teaching of pride in one's country's achievements and culture. The future peace of the world and the welfare of millions of people depends upon the manner in which we teach Americanism to our young people today.

Junior Town Meeting Movement

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Within the past few years a new movement has sprung up which has spread rapidly. This new movement is known as the Junior Town Meeting. It started on September 2, 1941, when, in an address to the nation's school administra-

tors, President Roosevelt expressed his interest in public discussion and forums as a means of education for democracy. With the desire to foster such a program he proposed to employ the aid of schools and colleges.

Within a month, *Our Times*, a weekly civic newspaper for school children, began to act in cooperation with the American Town Meeting of the Air, which discusses current affairs on the air, in publishing a preview of each week's discussion. *Our Times* urged its readers to form listener-discussion groups and it devoted a two-page spread to the discussion of various problems. These previews continued for two years until the formation of the Junior Town Meeting League.

At the same time *Civic Training*, another current weekly, began the publication of *The Town Meeting Leader*, which was composed of two pages of articles on discussion techniques and experience. This was published weekly until it was replaced by *Our Times Forum Service*, which gave specific aid to teachers for classroom discussion techniques.

As a result of these publications astounding response came from teachers in widespread parts of the nation. *Our Times* and *Town Hall Inc.* were determined to present a radio town meeting in which the discussants would be selected high school students. Immediately they asked schools to select their candidates and from these candidates they selected those students who were to participate.

The Radio Education Department of the public school system of Toledo, Ohio, agreed to sponsor and play host to this first radio *Junior Town Meeting*. So on February 26, 1942, the first Junior Town Meeting was broadcast from the auditorium of De Vilbiss High School in Toledo. "How Will Youth Face the Future?" was the topic for discussion. The results of this meeting were so overwhelming that *Our Times* urged schools to organize their own town meetings so that students might be given an opportunity to be heard.

By September, 1942, *Civic Training* presented the *Junior Town Meeting* as a means of discussing current affairs and social studies, and *Our Times* presented an experienced moderator, Dr. Byron B. Williams, who spent the following two years traveling about the country conducting Junior Town Meetings.

By the end of 1943, this movement had proved itself so effective that educators and radio executives planned a meeting to set up the future of the Junior Town Meeting. At

this meeting, which was held in Columbus, Ohio, on February 5, 1944, the Junior Town Meeting League was officially formulated. A constitution was drawn up at this meeting and a Committee on Topics was appointed which began immediately to present previews of topics selected especially for Junior Town Meetings.

To state the significance of this brief history one might say that the Junior Town Meeting was organized as an education aid rather than a means of sheer enjoyment. Today more than five hundred demonstration programs are being conducted in classrooms and assemblies. Thirty-seven radio stations in twenty-one states are now broadcasting the Junior Town Meeting regularly.

The League stated six reasons for setting up the Junior Town Meeting: (1) Youth in a democratic country should be discussion conscious for discussion is a form of action, an essential action on the part of citizens in making their government effective. (2) If youth discusses contemporary affairs now, they will be better suited to meet the world of tomorrow and intelligent discussion will increasingly become the habit of the nation. (3) To make our democratic country effective, both old and young must banish ignorance of contemporary affairs. (4) Youth should be given an opportunity to share their ideas in order to foster their growth as citizens. (5) When the ideas of contemporary affairs are widely shared civic life becomes more dynamic. (6) Youth should become more discussion-conscious, for the way of discussion is the democratic way.

HOW TO CONDUCT JUNIOR TOWN MEETINGS

One may ask how a town meeting is conducted on the air and who are the participants. The regular participants are boys and girls in secondary education who have been selected from a number of candidates. Before the program goes on the air the moderator meets with those students who are to participate as well as with the teachers who are to act as advisors. Each student prepares a script on his particular part of the program and this is sent to the moderator for careful study and for use in previews on the discussion. The program is advertised previous to the broadcast, often with the photographs of the participants. Radio an-

nouncers inform the audience of the time, station, and topic for discussion. Timing, an important factor, is worked out in advance with each speaker allotted a limited amount of time so that there is ample time for discussion and questions from the audience. Since the manner of presentation is vitally important, each speaker is asked to present his speech in a convincing but not oratorical manner and to think of any possible questions which might be asked. The topics which appear are excellent for scholarly study and stimulating exchange of ideas. "Should the Government Guarantee Full Employment?" "Should the Public Schools Educate for Marriage and Family Relations?" or "Should the Income Tax Be Lowered Now?" are some of the topics which have been presented by these high school students. That these programs have been beneficial to others than the participants is seen by the fact that the Junior Town Meeting of the Air has never presented a program before a disorderly audience.

From the air the town meeting method has found its way into classrooms and assemblies as a new method of teaching democracy. To present such a program for a class or assembly it is necessary to select some topic which has met with a degree of success in class discussion and to prepare it for a class or assembly program. Selecting the speakers is an important item and it is well to select students with pleasing personalities, ability to project voice, and ability to think and express ideas. Besides these it is necessary to select those students who have an adequate knowledge of the subject. A rehearsal beforehand in the auditorium is helpful as is also special help from speech, English, and history teachers. The matter of timing should be worked out in advance to keep the program within a limited time and a moderator should be employed. If guests are invited, it often creates a great deal of enthusiasm to have a guest moderator. The program will be a success if every student participates with a view of getting the most possible out of it.

VALUES OF JUNIOR TOWN MEETING

The question has been asked by many adults and students as to what value the Junior Town Meeting has. John Dewey once said that it was necessary that the methods of debate and discussion be greatly improved. It was for this

purpose that the League was organized. Its aim was to establish cooperation and an exchange of ideas among educators interested in the use of the discussion techniques both in school and out-of-school groups. The League actually aids and encourages the discussion method of teaching social studies in classrooms. It has proved itself very helpful, for it not only encourages schools to use the town meeting method, but it also offers an experienced national moderator who goes out and conducts such demonstrations in classrooms and high school assemblies.

The Junior Town Meeting trains young men and women to meet the world of tomorrow. In its value to students it has at least three distinctive merits. First of all, it offers an opportunity to discuss both sides of a subject. It eliminates those subjects which have a definite yes or no answer. When the material has been presented for and against a subject, the student is given an opportunity to express his opinion. Such discussion gives way to stimulating thinking. Such matters as a presidential election or the foreign policy offer a wide range of ideas and suggestions.

Secondly, the individual speaker does not have to line up his material with that which has been previously presented. He is free to express his own ideas. In this respect the Junior Town Meeting differs from the formal debate, for in a debate each side must agree on essential points and there is little room left for compromise. In the Junior Town Meeting no one has to argue for or against an issue to gain a place on the team.

The third big point is that the discussion brings in the audience. It eliminates the formal way of having only a few speakers who present prepared speeches and who make formal remarks. At the end of a discussion the audience is given an opportunity to ask questions or express its ideas.

Dr. Linwood Chase, Professor of Education at Boston University, in his article in the NEA Journal, October, 1947, sums up the value of the Junior Town Meeting by saying that it aims ". . . to teach tolerance, reason, and justice," to arouse an active interest in the method of discussion and especially to give high school students the experience which they will need

in future years when they will be the mayors, governors, and other civic officers. The school is basically responsible to see to it that the young people are so trained to assume their civic responsibilities. Thus far research workers have found that because of these discussions more people changed their attitudes toward various problems. It increased their rationality in thinking and it created a high degree of interest. The fine result that these discussions have induced the action of the listener seems to prove the fact that the Junior Town Meeting is of edu-

cational and social value and is not a form of entertainment in disguise. In the opinion of Dr. Linwood Chase the Junior Town Meeting is a step forward in our evolving educational program for ". . . it motivates . . . it trains in getting facts, studying, analyzing, discussing, and reaching conclusions . . . it trains in 'listenership' as well as leadership."¹

¹ Those interested in the Junior Town Meeting as a discussion program in high school social studies are invited to write for information from the Junior Town Meeting League, 400 South Front Street, Columbus 15, Ohio.

Pageantry: A Democratic and Vitalized Process in Education¹

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INTRODUCTION

What has pageantry to do with the fact that many states, countries, and communities are now, or soon will be, celebrating their anniversaries and significant occurrences that have been outstanding in their historical development? The anniversary of such an occurrence is an appropriate time for the school community to dramatize the growth of America through democratic processes, to capitalize upon our great diversity of cultural elements, and to inculcate in our citizens those ideals that are needed for a perpetuation of our system of government. A few suggestions may be in order.

The educators of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania were the first of the nation to require their teachers to have formal training in audio-visual aids. With insights from such study, the increased use of pageantry naturally followed. Themes for dramatization there, were indeed abundant as they are across the nation. Pennsylvania's growth history is fascinating: she is a leading producer of the nation's steel, is rich in coal mining, is a leader in education, has

a record of outstanding tolerance toward her aborigines as well as toward succeeding hordes of Europeans, is known as the home of the *Articles of Confederation* and the *Declaration of Independence*, and guardian of the hallowed ground of Valley Forge and Gettysburg. Small wonder that here pageantry so frequently becomes the means of bringing the school and community together in the educative process.

One need not necessarily await an anniversary for the celebration of an event, but this year and next, California, proud of its romantic past, celebrates its one hundredth year of statehood. Already many communities have used pageantry to awaken an interest in our recent past and to renew hope and faith in the future solidarity of our cultural elements. Educators now foresee opportunities for capitalizing upon such events in building a program of inter-cultural education as a means of fostering continuing good citizenship. New Mexico and Utah celebrate their admission as territories next year. In the former state, the many Indian groups with their strange but sacred rituals; the Negros with their soft, melodious voices; the Mexican-Americans with their beautiful songs, gay dances, and colorful costumes; along with other Caucasian groups possessing various cultural backgrounds remi-

¹ The opinions expressed in this article are those of the writer and are not to be construed as necessarily reflecting the views of the United States Office of Indian Affairs by whom he was employed when the pageants referred to herein were given.

niscent of far-away lands, may join in welding together a story of a progressive state, an enterprising community, a worthy citizen, or an outstanding institution. The well-being of our country is measured by the degree to which such a heterogeneous people find values in their own and their contemporaries' cultures. We, as educators, can facilitate this understanding.

One may not overlook the influence of religious groups upon the solidarity of our country. The sacrifices of a people in seeking freedom from persecution and in establishing a new American frontier, are historic events well worth perpetuating in the minds of the rising generations. The journals of early traders, trappers, and missionaries are replete with thrilling accounts of frontier life in Utah. Its more recent developments present dramatic episodes.

Other states celebrating their anniversaries will probably petition authorities for a stamp commemorating their admission. It is advantageous that these states and all others look forward to more than the simple recognition symbolized by a postage stamp. They have had important social, economic, and educational developments; advancements have been made in medicine, farming, and industry; all of these offer valuable areas for presenting concrete learning experiences to children and adults and for perpetuating the spirit of America.

What are the developmental highlights in your community that are worth re-living through pageantry? You, as a resident of your locality and state or as a teacher in your school, are in a position to find the answer. You can make the study meaningful to young and old alike by welding the heterogeneous elements of your community together in a group portrayal of the past that has made the present possible.

PAGEANTRY DEFINED

Pageantry is not a new term in education. It dates back to prehistoric times and with the passing decades has been used increasingly in the schools of America. Reference to the *Education Index* of the past few years will verify this. The National Association of Secondary School Principals¹² recently cited many examples of pageantry being used in schools across the country. The scripts reviewed by

that association were to a large extent original, being prepared through the democratic cooperative endeavor of students and teachers. Themes dealt with problems of significance to the students, the school, and community. A number were developed during the year as a definite part of the classroom work or were a culminating activity of a portion of the year's study. With danger of over-simplification, this paper assumes that pageantry is an epoch of community history prepared cooperatively and presented dramatically through the efforts of the local people and that it is indicative of living, working, and growing together.

The many textbooks on national history and the fewer number devoted to local areas² abound with suggestions for themes. Biography, perhaps the birthday of a successful statesman as Washington,¹⁷ or of a scholar as Horace Mann, an inventor, or other personage who made a contribution; deeds of immigrants; discovery and settlement¹⁸; local, state, national, or international themes; tolerance of race; peace; literary masters; the rise of a people; days of the year or commencement;¹⁶ these are only some of the potentialities of pageantry material.

USE OF TWO LANGUAGES

Much good will may be developed in a heterogeneous group through the use of a language understandable by adults and children alike. The existence of non-English-speaking communities suggests the need for a consideration of inter-cultural education. If the audience is mixed as to language abilities, clever arrangement will make the presentation intelligible and acceptable to both groups.

In the account which follows it will be seen that the use of two native Indian tongues increased appreciation and understanding by the audience. We will also show how the development of the two pageants portrayed outstanding epochs in the history of a people and were used as tools in the realization of the objectives of education.

The first part of the presentation will center around the adaptation of pageantry to a small school community. The second part will show how it was adapted to inter-school use and thus served a much larger number of people living in widely separated areas. Suggested techniques are included in the discussion.

SMALL COMMUNITY-SCHOOL PAGEANT

In the picturesque Wind River Valley of western Wyoming on a historical reservation live 1000 Shoshones. These people, exploited by their earlier white conquerors, are still proud of their lineage and culture and are always glad to tell the story of their heroine, Sacajawea. They know that she has already been paid tribute over and over again. Historians have told them that had it not been for her aid to the Lewis and Clark Expedition, the Great Northwest might now be a British possession. They have also read that she was instrumental in helping them to gain their present reservation.⁷ Truly then, the Shoshone people feel that Sacajawea merits all honor given by a grateful people. Upon such knowledge and background already possessed by a people, whether young or old, growth and development await only encouragement and opportunity.

Methods of gaining source material vary. In this community, the local government elementary-junior high school with its half dozen teachers helps to meet the needs of a large number of the tribe's children and provides a sort of community center for adults as well. The writer's own experience as a teacher led him to see that the interest of the boys and girls was easily motivated in the collection of historical lore at home, through interviews with old traders and missionaries, and in intensified reading of published source material. Such historical narrative, collected and woven together by pupils as a part of their English-reading-social studies activities, found wide reader-interest when reproduced in the mimeographed pages of a school-community newspaper. This student publication had close relationship to the development of the pageant.

Primary teachers capitalized upon the availability of recognized local authorities on native dances and ceremonial songs. One helped to train little folk to do authentic dances gracefully and to sing the tribe's ancient sacred songs correctly. Reading charts were based upon this experience. In the writer's adult study club, other grown-ups adept at Indian sign language taught this fast vanishing art to older pupils.

The above illustrations indicate only a few of the activities which formed a part of the routine of school life but which were also a part

of the culminating school-community historical pageant. When the writer felt that sufficient nuclear background had been laid in the development of the *Sacajawea Pageant*,¹⁴ he solicited increasingly the interest, cooperation and ideas of his colleagues, school patrons, and pupils as well as of students of local history and culture. The transition from other school work to activities definitely connected with the development of the pageant was so smooth that many of these people noticed hardly any change at all.

History records tense moments as well as those of a lighter vein. The pageant should likewise portray emotional panorama. The church register, recording the death of the heroine at the age of near 100, was read by a local catechist, an adult Shoshone dressed in the clerical vestments and impersonating the revered clergyman who officiated at her funeral. Limitation of space prohibits giving more details of the pageant content here. Time also limits the amount that can be given on the stage, but much of this important material is usually filled in by the narrator, who gives brief, pointed, direct, simple, succinct sentences, each contributing to an understanding of the story.

In this pageant enough Shoshone Indian language was used to make the story intelligible to non-English-speaking Indians. This also helped the many Shoshone parents to see that we had respect for their historic culture.

The novice will find many interesting and challenging problems in pageantry. When a story is woven around the life-history of an individual, as illustrated by the *Sacajawea Pageant*, one of two techniques may be used in presenting the life span of the main character. The same person may be disguised to represent the character at two or more different ages, or two or more persons of different ages may impersonate such a character during early and more advanced years. The latter plan was used in both pageants in this paper. One young girl impersonated Sacajawea at five, another at nineteen, and a distant relative of 68 represented her at the age of 80. This gave a larger number of people a coveted opportunity to share the honor of impersonating the heroine and helped to arouse greater interest and enthusiasm.

INTER-COMMUNITY COOPERATIVE EFFORT

Not only do we agree with the National Association of Secondary School Principals¹² that there is great value in a school-community preparing its own script, but we believe that there are added opportunities for growth when two or more schools unite in preparing their script and in developing and presenting the pageant. Appleton, Minnesota⁵ furnishes an excellent example of how elementary, junior, and high schools cooperated in developing a community pageant. Another good example was given at Fort Wayne, Indiana¹ in which three high schools joined in a successful project.

Where there is unity of feeling and interest in a larger geographical area, there is good reason why cooperative effort should extend beyond the confines of a local campus and embrace other schools in the district or in adjoining districts. Inter-cultural education need not be confined to a single campus. A similar example of such cooperative undertaking is the all-city band or orchestra or chorus in which segments have rehearsed at home and joined at a central place in a cooperative concert. In the same manner a vital and moving dramatization may be prepared in several local schools whose casts will later join at a central location, whether at a baseball lot or in the largest coliseum in the state, to present a total spectacular dramatization. Following is an example of such a project carried out on the Navajo Indian Reservation in both the English and Navajo languages.

PAGEANT OF NAVAJO HISTORY

Twelve upper-grade school areas with many contributing elementary schools worked individually on given episodes. The eight hundred fifty members of their casts were brought to a central location. Here was presented on an outside stage, in a natural amphitheatre, the *Pageant of Navajo History*.¹¹ They came from an area three times the size of Massachusetts, and many of them camped for three days on their Tribal Fair Grounds. There is notable pride of culture and race among the aborigines on the Navajo Indian Reservation, who frequently refer to themselves as *The Dine* meaning *The People*. The federal government some years ago began to encourage its teachers to seize upon the natural and cultural tribal resources for textual materials and to secure

from adults as well as children contributions to the development of curricula adapted to the needs and interests of *The People*. Such philosophy relative to curriculum is not restricted to any agency or locality,¹³ but it has particular significance for these people.

Space does not permit our tracing the turbulent history of these brave people since they crossed the Bering Strait, and a bibliography of documented studies on them fills a large volume.¹⁰

Steering Committee: A Steering Committee composed of representatives of the several schools with the writer as Chairman had been appointed by the local Director of Education for the purpose of exploring the possibility of a cooperative school-community pageant depicting the history of the Navajos. The work included the question of determining whether or not we might anticipate the active participation of all schools under the local federal jurisdiction as well as some of the church mission schools. The Committee found that the idea was not only feasible, but timely, and that such a project held potentialities for educational growth. Much research was carried on and many conferences held with students of the Navajo and with Indian leaders themselves. As in the *Sacajawea Pageant*, episodes or highlights of history to be portrayed were selected, tentative assignments of episodes were made to the different schools, and special committees to serve in a general capacity were suggested. This was approximately a year before the time set for the pageant to be given. Its development could easily have taken two or three years, for pageantry is a continual process of study, evaluation, change, and growth.

As set up by the Steering Committee, the *Pageant of Navajo History* was tentatively scheduled to include a Prologue, seven Episodes, an Epilogue, and the Finale. The narrator was dressed as an aged grandfather, sitting or standing by a huge map on which was boldly outlined the historic geographical area of the Navajos. The story was given in pantomime. The voices of the grandfather and the actors originated in the soundpit which had been constructed at the base of the grandstand for this occasion. They could easily be heard over the camouflaged loudspeakers. The thousands in the

audience learned of the contact of the Navajos with the Puebloans, with the Spanish soldiers and padres, with the Mexicans, and finally of the impact of the Anglo-Americans. The introduction of cattle, sheep, and horses were shown to have changed the nomadic life of the Navajo from that of hunting and gathering to that of raiding, livestock raising, and farming. A native Pueblo dance added color as did other tribal dances and sacred songs, at appropriate places in the story. In the Finale, the audience and all-Navajo band joined the nearly one-thousand actors in "The Star Spangled Banner" as the American flag was slowly raised over this group of thousands of patriotic citizens. To these Americans such qualities as race and color could hardly be said to be standards for determining loyalty and devotion to freedom. Dominant groups might well consider methods to make their own people as tolerant as this dark-skinned group which exhibited its feelings of good will.

Integrating Effort: Before the foregoing was fully realized, much hard work had been done. As different schools had accepted their assignments and appointed their own local committees, the work of the Steering Committee as such, ended. Its chairman continued as the director of the pageant, and its members accepted responsibilities with their individual schools in developing the episodes that had been assigned. The director of the pageant undertook to co-ordinate the activities of the project now divided among the twelve different school communities in a 25,000 square mile area. The General Policy adopted by the Steering Committee furnished a frame of reference for the director and for the several schools that were working on the assigned episodes. The local committee at each school continued, under guidance, doing necessary research on its own episode and preparing its script after a suggested format. Such script was considered tentative and was checked by the Editing Committee for adherence to the principles of unity, emphasis, historical accuracy, continuity, and dramatic appeal. Few changes were necessary, so thorough was the research and so carefully prepared was the text. Selection of music and other technical aspects received study. It

was found that professional musicians were happy to assist.

Educational personnel were alert and found many ways in which the development of the pageant might be capitalized upon in presenting the fundamental 3-R's, in making classroom work more meaningful and the results longer lasting. The total story it was intended to bring was made familiar to the pupils and to many adults. The writer feels that full use should be made of people in any school community. He drove many miles to talk with Indian leaders and to solicit their advice and information. He spent many hours around conference tables with them and through interpreters, discussed the Great Treaty⁹ and other issues of significance to *The People*. One must take his community with him if he expects to receive enthusiastic help from it. A word of warning is in order here. The cooperative and sympathetic understanding of the administration and of the board of education may uncover many usable ideas, help to elicit full support from the community and make possible the allocation of funds should the need arise. In this presentation the writer is taking into account the diversity of problems as presented from the metropolitan areas to one-room rural schools. As with most generalized statements, adaptations must be made in keeping with local situations.

It is presupposed that the leader or director who has final responsibility for the production is sympathetic and has understanding of the viewpoints of his colleagues, whether they be children or adults. He should be capable of maintaining rapport with a large number of people. He should become familiar with the technique of writing text and with presentation. This he can learn in part from some of the literature on pageantry, by seeing pageants developed and presented, in going behind the scenes at such presentation, in conferring with people who have had experience, and from experience itself. He should have a number of consultants who can work harmoniously together and with whom he has good relationship. These people should have specific assignments and know or undertake to learn about music, make-up, costumes, properties, speech training, publicity, art, first aid, and other needs that

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arise. The director may find it possible to refer them to sources of help^{3, 4, 6, 8} so that they may become more proficient. They assume responsibility when such is delegated to them by the director, aiding with the work indicated and training less experienced help. Each one tries to develop some one else to take over should he for some reason have to withdraw.

It is well for the consultants to know something of the job assigned them, but industriousness and a willingness to learn are even more important. A happy and inspiring disposition is an added asset. Pupils are often given some of the above responsibilities, many having had more experience and a greater interest than adults in the community.

Pageantry denotes group participation, but of special importance, it denotes organization and purpose. Participation may be through the contribution of properties, consultation, leadership, taking a character part, caring for properties, running a nursery as was necessary on the nights of the *Sacajawea Pageant*, or doing one of dozens of things that contribute to a smoothly functioning organization. Many of these assignments offer remuneration only in the satisfaction of a job well done and in the knowledge that one is contributing toward the successful development of a democratic educational enterprise. Organization is gradually reduced to writing, as has been indicated. Assignments will have been made through the mutual understanding of the persons assigned and the director or his consultants.

Properties: With the selection of the cast and with the making of necessary committee assignments comes the responsibility of securing necessary costumes and properties. Patrons of the school like to see tangible results of what they are paying for. When properly approached, they will gladly respond to any reasonable request for help. The sixty-nine-year-old lady who played the part of Sacajawea traveled forty miles to procure a buckskin dress for the occasion. Other people furnished valuable head-dresses and other properties just as in a non-Indian community interested individuals will ransack attics and initiate efforts to find appropriate properties to contribute.

If one's school is departmentalized, the art class may provide advertising and stage scen-

ery; the homemaking classes, costumes; the shop classes, heavier properties and stage drops; and music classes may make a study of themes or of music appropriate to the occasion. Social studies classes may do historical research and English classes may aid in writing script and on speech work.

In the *Pageant of Navajo History* one school with special facilities made fifty bows and arrows, another a like number of quivers. A third made one hundred fifty wooden rifles that were to be used by soldiers in three different episodes. Another made a large number of uniforms for itself and neighboring schools. A large school with both a cooperative woodwork shop and art class prepared the huge map which the grandfather used in tracing the tribal story for his grandchildren. This same school constructed a rectangular revolving framework bearing the backdrops for different episodes presented by as many different schools.

The distribution of properties was made on the basis of need and without reference to their source. Not one school showed resentment at making properties to be used by another. Some volunteered special facilities of which the director had not been aware. There was here and will be in your own work, a general feeling of rendering a community service, and a desire for the greatest good to the greatest number.

The above suggests that staffs of cooperating schools, patrons, and children be encouraged to help with the work so that there may be growth for a large number of pupils and adults through active participation in planning, executing, and dramatizing a story of great significance to them. This responsibility is shared by all.

The Director: The director has much responsibility, not the least of which is the wise selection of people who will work with him and perform faithfully on committees. It has been suggested that whenever possible he let the sunshine of publicity and encouragement fall upon pupils and assisting adults rather than upon himself. He aids in securing supplies and data. He solicits criticisms of scripts and practices, coordinates the multiplicity of activities, and has final authority, which he uses as little as possible.

Central Committees: Names of some committees have already been suggested. We are

concerned also with problems at the site of the presentation. Central Committees serve here. When several hundred people congregate, a large number of whom are children, a good Safety Committee is of first importance. A doctor or nurse should be readily available. The Housing Committee, if one is needed as in the inter-school pageant above, will provide adequate and safe quarters for children and their chaperones and will, for obvious reasons, keep a record of where each child is housed. A Transportation Committee may be necessary. A Property Committee gives receipts for and charges out property on proper authority. The Communication Committee may provide a telephone line from the sound pit to the Lighting Committee and to the Stage Management Committee. The Program Committee may carefully prepare and distribute a small brochure. The Scenery Committee in the foregoing presentation provided structural elements and covered with evergreen boughs a fifteen by two hundred feet chicken-mesh framework which made a pleasing backdrop. The Livestock Committee furnished, fed, and cared for many head of sheep, cattle, and horses. The Committee on Sound Effects carefully selected Navajo and white men and women with good voices to work with the actors who were to pantomime. A Committee on Linguistics worked hard in translating the English text into the complex Navajo language previous to its being used by the Committee on Recordings.

Each school had been given transcriptions of the Navajo for use in practicing its assigned episode. Continued research was carried on by pupils and other individuals as well as by the director or persons designated by him. For example, one colleague was asked to verify the authenticity of certain flags one school proposed to use in its presentation; another was asked to determine if certain musical instruments could be authentically used in the pageant.

The Costume Committee felt that, both from an educational and economic standpoint, it was preferable to borrow or make necessary costumes than to rent or buy them. It was decided that fabrication could usefully be a part of class training. This committee, with an alert chairman, requisitioned surplus and discarded materials that had been taking up valuable

space in local warehouses for many years. Hundreds of pairs of girls', long-out-of-style, ribbed, cotton stockings proved to be just the thing to make the short black hair of modern Navajo youth resemble that of their grandparents. In evening performance on the outside stage, this disguise looked most real. Burlap, washed, mangled, dyed, and hand designed with poster paint, made excellent representations of the early-day hand-woven dresses, now found in museums across the country. Instructions covering the making of these costumes and other properties were given in an illustrated mimeographed bulletin, prepared locally and made available to all interested parties.

When a pageant is developed wholly in a single school-community some consideration must be given to finance. This is even more necessary where two or more schools work cooperatively. Therefore, a Finance Committee is needed. It is composed of representatives of the participating school-communities and should make available to the director needed funds for the immediate purchase of goods. The director should account for disbursements through proper records.

Whether or not there should be a Research Committee as such will depend upon the local situation. In working on the *Pageant of Navajo History* possible sources of information from coast to coast were tapped and gracious response received. For example, The Signal Corps of the War Department furnished pictures of the Navajos in their everyday dress while imprisoned in 1864-68. Other public and private agencies were equally liberal.

A local historian kindly consented to serve as Historical Consultant and Editor of Script, thus assuring further accuracy. Many other people made valuable contributions.

Publicity and Records: It is generally recognized by educators that better rapport is established through mutual understanding by pupils, patrons, and employees. The director may appoint a Publicity Committee which will prepare material in keeping with a general policy and submit the same through the director who will probably clear, through the School Superintendent's office. If the pageant is co-sponsored by several schools, the director should work out a policy with the school administrators. The

wise director, as we previously emphasized, will prevent his name being widely used in publicity. The release of the pictures of the cast in costume always arouses interest. A complete clipping file as well as a complete roster of all people participating should be kept.

The writer was invited to appear on a local radio broadcast. His committee told of the origin of the *Pageant of Navajo History* which was under way, of the important part the Navajos had played in our general American culture, how we were relating the work on the pageant to the fundamental process of getting an education, the amount of time and effort involved, and the degree of success and cooperation thus far received and that anticipated. Newspapers eagerly made use of the broadcast and copies were distributed at schools for the benefit of people who had no radios.

The integration of the work in the schools with the work on the pageant makes for good public relations. Securing the active participation of adults in making costumes or properties for the children or in taking character parts themselves is additional favorable publicity. Committees in selecting casts have found that the most prominent member of the community often considers it an honor to participate. A tribal councilman who was a member of the *Sacajawea Pageant* cast showed his loyalty by declining to go to an adjoining state on government business until assured that he would be permitted to return in time to participate in the presentation. Less-known patrons respond equally well when given an opportunity to share. The sixty-nine-year-old lady who played the part of Sacajawea was happy at being permitted to help prepare the lines she thought the heroine may have used. She remarked that this was the first time she had ever been on a stage. She carried her part admirably.

Some of the schools in the Navajo story used their single episode as a part of their local commencement exercises since by the end of June they had worked on their portion for some months and the entire pageant was not to be given until the following September. Since there are no compulsory attendance laws on the Navajo Reservation, the motivation of interest in attending and studying at school is very important. Some of the school personnel felt that

the increased and more regular attendance in school in September was due to the favorable enthusiasm aroused relative to the possibility of participating in or seeing the *Pageant of Navajo History*. Similar punctuality in attendance was noted by the school where the *Sacajawea Pageant* was presented.

Additional Outcomes: Throughout this paper we have implied or otherwise indicated some of the outcomes of pageantry, particularly of the two under discussion here. Pictures were made of both. One thousand feet of colored film on the Navajo story were well worth editing. Seventy-five, two-by-two-inch, projection slides were made and a syllabus prepared. These found ready acceptance by pupils, adults, and teacher-training classes and were finally deposited with the Education Division as a part of its permanent library of visual aids. From the *Sacajawea Pageant* only a film strip was prepared. This was heartily received by the people who played the parts in the pageant. One might well ask where else was there a comparable collection of authentic visual material on these two particular subjects.

Both the English and Navajo language texts of the *Pageant of Navajo History* became textbook material in the upper grades in English and Navajo language classes. Ten months later, the writer took his high school graduating class on a thirteen-hundred-mile educational trip. The tribal "Navajo Song of Mourning," popularized by its use in the pageant, was the one most often used as the pupils traveled by bus from one point of interest to another.

While the many favorable responses suggested that both pageants were well received, it must be remembered that pageantry is an educational tool, a means to an end, and that its success cannot be evaluated wholly on the basis of performance or upon how well it is received by the spectators. Rather, in order to justify the use of valuable time and the necessary monetary outlay, we must be concerned with realistic answers to such questions as these: Does it motivate and increase learning? Help pupils and adults to visualize past events? Promote a feeling of good fellowship between teachers and pupils, school and community? Serve as an agency for inter-cultural education? Cut vertically through arbitrary

grade-group classifications and horizontally through subject-matter fields? Help to interpret the school and its activities to the patrons? Become a useful tool in accomplishing something *now*? Help to develop community consciousness? Provide opportunities whereby people may help harmoniously and work democratically together in rendering a community service? Permit large numbers to participate? Make for solidarity of our cultural elements?

The consensus of opinion of the writer's associates to the foregoing questions, as well as that of most other people who have been actively engaged in the use of this educational tool, is in general an affirmative answer.

SUMMARY

Much of the foregoing is ably summarized by students of pageantry⁶ who hold that in many schools pageantry has become a core of activity involving the interest and active co-operation of many departments. In the procedure of developing a pageant such as we have used for illustrative material, it is suggested that (1) a theme be chosen; (2) historical research be done for background; (3) the most important episodes be selected; (4) groups of workers concentrate on the various episodes; (5) the pageant be kept simple through simple speech and few well-developed events; (6) episodes be between ten and twenty-five minutes in length; (7) inter-departmental or inter-school cooperation be secured; (8) that one person be responsible for combining and unifying the script and for the finished performance.

In each of these several steps, the ingenuity of the teachers and director will uncover many ways in which the work may be approached democratically, decisions arrived at through agreement, and many objectives of education realized.

The pageant writer, for the purpose of clarifying procedures, has gone into detail regarding pageantry with specific groups. He has shown it may be adapted to a small community-school area as well as to inter-school cooperative use. Surely it is evident to the interested reader that similar procedures are applicable to any group and any community.

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Modernizing Sociology Teaching

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Modern teaching is the goal of every growing teacher. Certainly no teacher should be satisfied with merely conducting classes or refereeing between the textbook and the child. Modern instruction should take two or three progressive steps beyond the imparting of a reasonable amount of information. Modern teaching must be artistic and functional. The modern instructor must know how to impart knowledge in such a way that the learning will be a happy experience. Some teachers teach children a particular subject but they at the same time teach the child to hate the subject.

No modern teacher would defend the idea of eliminating a textbook completely as a guide to successful and progressive instruction. However, some teachers become slaves to the textbook and limit the vitalizing and enriching of the subject. The artistic teacher will vitalize, enrich and motivate his subject. He will not have to defend it.

Any subject has to be interesting. The subject matter of sociology deals with live issues and persons. The various means of teaching sociology interestingly are too numerous to list. I will mention three or four of the most effective in modern teaching.

The forum is one of the best means of securing interest and incidentally imparting knowledge. For the students to discuss a topic after having read extensively on the particular subject is one of the most effective ways of creating and maintaining interest. To be specific, if "Juvenile Delinquency" is the topic for the forum and the students have read widely and have written down their opinions on the subject as well as exchanged ideas as to the condition, causes and cures, and have charted a procedure to reduce the problem, we can be reasonably sure that students with average intelligence will profit much by this type of teaching. Any progressive instructor will not want to use this method exclusively any more than he would want to use the lecture, question and answer, or any other type. The combination method is best.

In the teaching of sociology, the research method can also be successfully used. It must be admitted that high school students do not possess the necessary techniques to make accurate investigations on an extensive basis. The research will of necessity be elementary. It is surprising how much information can be secured and how effective and thorough some of these investigations can be. The average student of sociology is interested in cooperative work. He is imaginative and frequently has, with the guidance of the teacher, considerable initiative.

One recent survey conducted by our sociology class related to the prisons of the nation, another the relation of church and Sunday School attendance to juvenile delinquency; still another dealt with the educational needs of the South. Students are eager to cooperate in studies of this sort and the research is tremendously helpful to them.

Field trips have long been used as a vitalizing means to progressive instruction. The teacher of sociology can, for a period, maintain interest through articles, visual aids, reports, textbooks, and forums, but he must use the resources of the city, state and nation if he is to do the most effective type of instruction.

The visit to a reformatory, with the superintendent giving a lecture and conducting a tour through the institution, gives the students an enriched experience they never forget. A visit to the state university, the school for the blind, the poor house, or the city court, are valuable in helping the students to learn through rich experiences.

Recently, the writer took a group on an extended tour to Washington, D. C., Richmond, Williamsburg, Jamestown and other places. The historical, educational, recreational and sociological knowledge of such a trip is almost unlimited.

Another valuable means of progressive sociology instruction is the radio broadcast. The

student who participates in a broadcast is using knowledge and can easily evaluate his degree of mastery.

Learning must be interesting. It must be meaningful; it must be functional. The artistic teacher knows this to be true and formulates his units to incorporate the latest, richest and

most progressive materials.

It is certain that all of the best will not be a monopoly of any teacher. The alert teacher will know that he has no monopoly but has an irrepressible ambition to grow and see that his pupils grow. This is the aim of sociology instruction.

Learning to Be an Adult

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Adult infantilism! Are teachers guilty? I mean, are teachers perpetuating infantilism by graduating infants from our schools? Yes, I know all the clichés about "they'll never be so old and so wise again as they are the day they graduate from high school," but I mean something deeper than that.

At eighteen, youths are adults, may fight for their nation, may vote in Georgia, may get married, may go to work and earn a living. The day before, they were kids—high school boys and girls, ordered to read this and recite on that, told how to go to the library and what to read when they got there. Can we assume that by growing a day older they can qualify as informed adults, understanding current affairs, and familiar with sources of current information?

Thirty-six teachers in fifteen high schools in California decided to find out. They organized the California Council on Improvement of Instruction (CCII), and set themselves the task of preparing pupils for the adult world by using adult sources of information as basic materials of instruction. They found that these materials—periodicals, movies, recordings, field trips—each requires its own teaching techniques which must be acquired through classroom experience. The organization provided a means for joint study and exchange of ideas. In 1947, they published an account of their activities in a brochure *Better Teaching Through the Use of Current Materials* (Stanford University Press) of which 33,000 have been distributed to educators throughout the world. In 1948-1949, all of the

experiences were drawn together into a book, written by the present 100 members of the council under the editorship of Drs. Lucien Kinney and Katharine Dresden: *Better Learning Through Current Materials* (Stanford University Press).

CCII has made two notable contributions to education. One is the development of the general plan or strategy with current materials in each of the fields of secondary education. The other is a development of detailed procedures or tactics for implementing the general plan. This latter was on the way to becoming a lost art.

We are all familiar, for instance, with the general idea of the long unit assignment—the steps in its development and what is to be accomplished in each. But just *how* does one bring in current materials effectively? Grant Jensen of East Bakersfield High School consciously set himself the task of answering that question. We are particularly fortunate in that the day he started a new unit the project consultant was there; the consultant took down a few notes, and here is the tale:

The class in United States history and the pupils assemble in that usual informal way in which high school pupils assemble nowadays. When most of them had arrived and began drifting toward their seats, Mr. Jensen said quite casually, "Who is working on —?" and mentioned one of the big over-all semester topics. The big boy talking to the little girl turned and replied, "I am." "Did you see the editorial in last night's *Californian*?" "No!"—

the boy started forward as Mr. Jensen held out the clipping, "Right down your alley. And who is interested in —?" Out came an article, a cartoon, a reference to be distributed; boys and girls drifted into place, silence settled after the buzz; attention was directed to Mr. Jensen and the class was started without rapping for order, official calling to attention, sharply breaking off conversations or breaking up groups.

The distribution finished, Mr. Jensen stepped aside, nodded, and Hortense took over the leadership. Today Hortense was to introduce the new topic. Isn't it magnificent the way these boys and girls rise to a situation? Hortense wasn't self-conscious, or nervous, or frightened—she just took it in stride, stood up and started. But do all boys and girls everywhere take it "in stride?" We have observed that project classes with their informality, their close but unobtrusive structuring, their skilled teachers, do these things easily, naturally, and we may say, gracefully.

The new unit, Hortense tells us, is "The Race Problem," which, as you know, encompasses a great deal, especially here in California where there are so many races. That's what makes it so important to us. But it is too big a problem to handle all at once, so we will start with the Negro. Here is a situation loaded with emotion, fraught with danger, to be discussed in a mixed class under pupil leadership. But Mr. Jensen knows how to avoid problems by circumventing them—we do not mean by not meeting the issue—we mean by recognizing all of the elements and planning accordingly. He has helped Hortense with her organization. They do not start with an immediate, highly personalized, individual experience; they recognize a basic commonality but use a new experience as a starting point for all. A report is given on the *Time* article on Randolph and the Jim Crow army. Intently each pupil watches the speaker, here one jots down a note, another turns to the article in the *Time* lying on his desk, two exchange glances across the aisle, one white boy turns and looks squarely at a Negro neighbor who equally squarely returns the glance. You see, we all know something about the Negro situation personally. We know that Negroes are not given a fair break in some places. We know that our white parents object to Negro friends.

We know that our Negro grandparents think segregation is wise. You see, what we know is individual and personalized. This report is neither. The reporters have told a tale of an actual event and rather a different incident from the kind we usually read about. It sets us thinking—we think that this is not just Alice and Lily and Bob, our school, our neighborhood. It is a national problem and it concerns not only us whites, or us Negroes; it concerns Negroes and whites.

So we must turn from this incident of Negro-white relations to attempts at resolution of the problem. Another pupil stands informally and with occasional reference to his notes tells of the Truman proposals—no editorializing, just straight reporting, and the points are listed for future reference and discussion.

From an immediate incident, besides appealing to our personal experiences, to a national proposal, now back again nearer home and nearer the emotional—the third report is on the California over-all situation. Just an indication here, a proposal there, and we deduce that California, once rather liberal, is now beginning to impose a few restrictions here and there.

Remember? Our boys and girls are *learning to be leaders*—they are not finished leaders. Mr. Jensen takes over here; he does not risk spoiling the introduction of a new unit with emotionalism, personalities, undirected comment. He questions carefully and directly to bring out the issues involved in the Randolph case: "What does it matter?" "Shall we accept them for who they are, irrespective of what they are?" "Shall there be a 'Gentlemen's Agreement'?" We don't know the answers; we aren't ready with them as we have not examined the issues thoroughly. We are not going to decide out of our incomplete and emotionalized store. But the way is pointed—we are interested—now we will look up material, read, study, ask. We Americans will earnestly study the address to the troops, find the four principles, examine them, discuss them, if necessary reorganize our thinking. Here's a task we've cut out for ourselves!

And so Mr. Jensen is organized and set to go—we'd love to sit in the rest of the week and see how the boys and girls carry on from here.

The I. P. C. Statement on Mental Health and World Citizenship

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Man's age-long dream of democracy, a society of peace with liberty and justice, may be achieved through the application of the principles of psychology to wider social issues. A synthesis of the two is attempted in the *Statement on Mental Health and World Citizenship* drawn up by the International Preparatory Commission (I.P.C.) of an International Congress on Mental Hygiene which met in London in the summer of 1948. The Commission was composed of twenty-five world-known psychologists, psychiatrists and some social scientists from twenty-seven countries except Russia and the Orient. It expressed regret that delegates from those areas were absent from the Congress. This was a private gathering without official government connection. The findings of 5,000 persons who had long been preparing for the Congress were summarized by the I.P.C. in a fifty-page printed pamphlet, or *Statement*.

This declared that *all* of man's problems constitute a collective psychological problem of each man living at peace with himself and with his fellows within and among *all* nations. Such mental health means wholesome personality integration on cooperative levels that will integrate man personally and socially. In this way psycho-physical conflicts and insecurities in individuals and among groups would be eliminated. In short, the *Statement* restated the principles of democracy in the language of mental hygiene. The term mental health is used throughout. Technical terms such as psychology, integration, inhibitions, adjustment and so forth do not appear.

The Commission declared that social conflicts and insecurities such as war, revolutions, depressions, dictatorships and so forth are merely institutional forms of mental ill-health. They are the effects and symptoms of man's wrong psychologies arising from individual ill-health. This is due to wrong psychologies and social

institutions. Wrong psychologies are those which are of an independent nature, for these cause withdrawal from society in one form or another. Independent integration necessitates competition against one's fellow, causing conflicts and insecurities for all. Wrong social institutions are those which seek independent ends by competition with other groups or permit individuals within the group to seek securities and satisfactions at the expense of members of the groups. Man adheres to this self-centered integration and similar institutions (competition for independence) owing to illogic, non-objective knowledge and a dubious kind of morals. Man universally justifies his behavior on the ground of the ethic of "the end justifies the means." The end is always the self-defense of what one asserts to be his right or need. Right psychologies and institutions are those which not only are based on valid and reliable data and morals ("the means justifying the end") but which integrate the individual socially. Socially centered integration means cooperation of individuals within and among groups for the good of all.

The *Statement* pointed out that man's behavior, his functional psychology, is learned. Hence it is modifiable. Wrong learnings are preventable and removable by proper education if learned. There is nothing in man's *nature* which biologically predisposes him to right or wrong psychology or behavior. There is no fixed innate biological malevolence in man and consequently mental ill-health (anti-social behavior) is due to the learning of wrong psychologies. Man *can* learn right psychologies which will bring him to mental health and world citizenship. In other words, there are no biological limitations imposed by man's *nature* which supposedly prevent the attainment of intelligence and morality necessary for mental health. Religious idealism, education and democratic

government *can* educate man to that good end. Thus the dream of democracy of the great prophets and other leaders since the dawn of conscience in Egypt around 3,000 B.C. (Breasted's thesis) now seems possible and probable because a knowledge of psychology makes it practical.

The *Statement* offers man the means of understanding himself so that he *can* attain mental health. Progress to it is not predestined to be attained through chance changes despite wars, revolutions and so forth. Progress to the *perfectability of behavior* can only be attained by planned education to create psychologies and institutions in accord with mental health. Such education should be moral, logical and objective and not an agency as in the past and present to maintain the status quo in each nation.

The authors of the *Statement* declared that specific social reforms in *all* nations are necessary to create mental health. They asserted that there is voluminous social science data, known only to scholars, that supports this recommendation. As it is a superhuman task to reorientate man's psychologies and institutions, it did not seem prudent to specify the data and the reforms in this initial *Statement*. These will be forthcoming when the time is opportune.

However, one specific reform is mentioned: man must give up his universal unlimited national sovereignty. This is incompatible with mental health and world citizenship. It is one chief institutional cause of war, for example. No reference is made to other institutional causes of war, such as economic and political imperialism. Only a humanitarian plea is made for the raising of low economic living standards to bring these in accord with mental health.

Despite its generalization, and the reluctance "to be blunt," the *Statement* is epoch-making and promises moral and social salvations from the catastrophic practices of modern life and their implicit disintegrating changes. Psychological disarmament and security must precede political, economic and other institutional disarmament and security before peace and democracy prevail within and among nations.

Such psychological change means the creation of psychologies of cooperation for human unity. These will permit of cooperative institutions. Both are the foundations of mental health. If man desires to live *in* society he must cease psychological and other exploitation by which man merely lives *on* it.

Mental health *can* be obtained through education that changes public opinion with regard to psychologies and institutions. Such education must be implemented by political action. The *Statement* devoted several pages to a description of such education. For example, teams of psychologists and social scientists would work together addressing public meetings and so forth. The re-education of *adults now* is the prerequisite as a moral obligation as well as to aid in preventing further mental ill-health and catastrophic changes. Child re-education in accord with existing universally accepted principles is a co-requisite but adult re-education is primarily needed to permit and effect that of children.

The *Statement* thus places a moral obligation upon educators everywhere to implement its message. They must study, understand and accept it. They must prevail upon their school faculties. All must petition the constituted authorities to make changes to attain mental health. Educators as citizens must work through political parties and other organizations to win acceptance for, and action on, this message of mental health. Although the *Statement* does not say so, a new organization and political party may be necessary to secure psychological and institutional change in our own nation which could then assume world leadership toward mental health. Unless educators assume this program of re-education, it would seem that mankind will only continue to dream of peace and democracy. Many men, as so many still do, would probably conclude that civilized society, mental health, is but an idle dream bearing no reality to objective facts.¹

¹ Single copies of the *Statement* are obtainable free from the Division of World Affairs, The National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 1790 Broadway, New York 19, New York.

Mark Twain, Mirror of his Time

JEAN KENNEDY

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The gallery of American literary history is rich with unique, colorful personalities. None of these, perhaps, is more colorful, more complex, more impressive than that of Samuel L. Clemens, better known to the American reader as the beloved and droll Westerner, Mark Twain. Here is a man who was complex to an extreme; a man remembered in history as America's greatest humorist, yet one who turned his pen to satirize that same American life which had been the basis of his humor; a man who still later was branded by Father James Gillis as "an inveterate pessimist, a hater of the human race."¹

The reader who is unfamiliar with any of Mark Twain's works except *The Celebrated Jumping Frog*, *Life on the Mississippi*, or *Innocents Abroad*, will be quite unaware of this strange paradox of personality. Indeed, so were most of the American public in his own day. Yet the study of this paradox is so deep, so far-reaching, that here we can hit only the highest and most general points. "But," we may ask, "why are one author's changing trends in writing so important to the study of the American social scene?" They are vitally important, because in Mark Twain's evolution from humorist, to satirist, to pessimist, we can detect the changing American social scene of the latter half of the nineteenth century.

After his first big publication, *The Celebrated Jumping Frog*, Mark Twain was uproariously accepted by America as her chosen national spokesman. He even remained her favorite after his death. Vernon Parrington sums up his influence by saying: "He is a mirror reflecting the muddy cross currents of American life as the frontier spirit washed in, submerging the old aristocratic landmarks."²

In his humor we find the American social scene clearly presented. We detect the contem-

porary American attitude toward life in his reflection of the buoyant frontier spirit. At this time Mark Twain, the young, eager idealist, set out to see America. Ambition, adventure, and a carefree love of life characterized the Mark Twain of this period, as they do all true humorists. America was big; America was wonderful; the American government was generous. Man faced great hardships but he overcame them. He was what he made himself, for he was free. Why shouldn't he be happy? Twain represents this spirit in his account of the carefree life of a river pilot. Experiences were vast. Men worked hard but were happy in developing the resources of the beloved Mississippi River. Grant Knight says: "Nowhere else is the steamboat era so vividly described; . . . as a record of a vanishing day, *Life on the Mississippi*, bubbling over at times with Twain's irresistible sense of fun, is invaluable."³ He again shows this spirit in *The Celebrated Jumping Frog*. As a reporter he wrote his homespun account of a frog-jumping contest in such a hilarious, spontaneous way that immediately it clicked with the American public. The author had succeeded in capturing their own spontaneity and their buoyancy.

While America roared at his *Innocents Abroad*, it said "Mark Twain is right. Off with the old culture of Europe and on with the new of America." He typified bold, irreverent America when he stood before the ancient Colosseum and called it, "A looped and windowed band box with a side bitten out."⁴ When his European guide mentioned Moses, he boldly questioned, "Moses who?"

We further detect contemporary American attitudes toward life by studying Twain's use of local color. The new America was truly nationalistic, and it was good enough for Mark Twain. Influenced by Josh Billings and Arte-

¹ James M. Gillis, *False Prophets*, p. 127.

² V. Parrington, *The Beginnings of Critical Realism in America*, p. 88.

³ G. Knight, *American Literature and Culture*, p. 363.

⁴ F. L. Pattee, *A History of American Literature Since 1870*, p. 53.

(Continued on page 315)

Topic T 1. European Background of American History

STUDY OUTLINE

1. Major Features of the Transition from Medieval to Modern Europe, 15th-16th Centuries.
2. The Renaissance Era.
 - a. Antecedents in Crusades and medieval trade.
 - b. The New Learning: study of classics.
 - c. Paper and printing; Gutenberg, c. 1450; learning available to the masses.
 - d. An age of personal, individual activity displacing the guilds and other medieval social organizations.
 - e. An age of invention and discovery.
 - 1) In astronomy: Copernicus and others.
 - 2) Invention of gunpowder: gradual overthrow of feudalism and chivalry; new weapons.
 - 3) Use of Arabic numerals, lens, telescope and microscope; alchemy and chemistry; Galileo and physics; the scientific method.
 - 4) In geography (see No. 4 below)
3. The Reformation.
 - a. Relation to Renaissance.
 - b. Prominent persons: Luther, Zwingli, Calvin, Knox, Loyola.
 - c. Results.
 - 1) Split in Christian Church; rise of many sects.
 - 2) Persecutions and civil wars: the Inquisition; the Revolt of the Netherlands; wars in Germany, in France, in England—the Puritan Revolt.
 - 3) Catholic Church reform: Council of Trent, Jesuits, &c.
 - 4) Eventual toleration in religion in many countries.
 - 5) New missionary activity among Catholics and Protestants.
4. Expanding Knowledge of Geography.
 - a. Medieval trade routes.
 - b. Journeys of Marco Polo and others.
 - c. Early maps.
 - d. Portuguese explorations of African coast.
 - e. Ideas about shape and size of the earth.
 - f. Inventions aiding geographical discovery: mariner's compass, astrolabes, quadrant, nautical tables, map- and globe-making.
5. Trade with the East.
 - a. Routes; Alexandria, Constantinople.
 - b. Control by Italian cities.
 - c. Articles of commerce.
 - d. Conquests by Turks; effect upon trade.
 - e. Demand for new routes.
6. Trading Companies.
 - a. An age of legal monopolies in commerce.
 - b. Commercial monopolies to trade with certain places given by France, England, Spain, the Dutch, &c., to select companies of their citizens.
7. Conditions in Great Britain.
 - a. Strong national monarchy of Tudors.
 - b. Organization of English government.
 - 1) The Nation:

Executive: the King and his ministers.
Legislature: Parliament (King, Lords, Commons)
Judiciary: House of Lords, Privy Council, King's Courts.
 - 2) Local Government:
County: sheriff, coroner, justice of peace, county court.
Parish or Town: local duties, including care of local roads, the poor, the church.
Borough: incorporated by King; usually governed by a select few.
City: chartered by King; an elaborate government with few popular features.
- c. Religious sects.
 - 1) Church of England: legally supported by public taxes.
 - 2) Puritans: believed in state church but wished to purify it.
 - 3) Separatists: would establish independent congregations.
 - 4) Catholics: treated as public enemies despite general loyalty to monarchy.
- d. Social and industrial conditions.
 - 1) Growth of enclosed estates and spread of sheep-raising.
 - 2) Large number of vagrants.
 - 3) Increasing city population.
 - 4) Growth of new industries; search for new markets.
 - 5) Gradual overthrow of guild system.
 - 6) Existence of many legal monopolies.
 - 7) Rise of chartered commercial companies.
8. National Monarchies, 16th-17th Centuries.
 - a. England: under Tudors and Stuarts.
 - b. France: under Louis XI, Francis I, and the Bourbons.
 - c. Spain united under Ferdinand and Isabella.
 - d. Austria: under the Hapsburgs.
 - e. Sweden: under Gustavus Adolphus.
 - f. The Dutch: a confederation with an hereditary presidency.
 - g. Struggles between Hapsburgs and Bourbons, Spain and England, Spain and the Dutch, England and France.
 - h. Growth of nationalism.

¹ This is the first of a series of History Topics for American History, prepared by Morris Wolf, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.

AIDS TO LEARNING

AUDIO-VISUAL

Middle Ages I, II (12 plates each, in color). F. E. Compton Co., 1000 North Dearborn St., Chicago, Ill.
Life in Medieval Times—Knighthood (22 plates, with text).
Informative Classroom Picture Publishers, 40 Ionia Ave., N.W., Grand Rapids 2, Mich.
The European Background (17 slides). The Pageant of America Lantern Slides, by Yale University Press, 386 Fourth Ave., New York

HISTORIES

E. P. Cheyney, *European Background of American History* (The American Nation, vol. 1)
W. S. Davis, *Life in Elizabethan Days*
C. J. Finger, *Heroes from Hakluyt*
J. Fiske, *Discovery of America*, I
M. S. Lucas, *Vast Horizons*
D. Mills, *Renaissance and Reformation Times*
E. M. Tappan, *When Knights Were Bold*
Biographies: D. Byrne, *Messer Marco Polo*; H. Lamb, *Boys' Genghis Khan*; E. Sanceau, *Henry the Navigator*

STORIES

E. G. Bulwer-Lytton, *Rienzi, the Last of the Tribunes*
S. M. de Cervantes, *Don Quixote de La Mancha*
W. S. Davis, *The Friar of Wittenberg*
A. D. Hewes, *Spice and the Devil's Cave*
V. Hugo, *Notre Dame de Paris*
C. Kingsley, *Westward Ho!*
P. Lindsay, *London Bridge Is Falling*
D. C. McMurtrie, *Wings for Words*
C. Read, *The Cloister and the Hearth*
M. V. Rosenberg, *The Ark of Heraldry*
Sir Walter Scott, *Ivanhoe*; *Kenilworth*; *Quentin Durward*; *The Talisman*

SOURCES

A. B. Hart, *American History Told by Contemporaries*, I, chs. 6-8
J. H. Robinson, *Readings in European History*, I, ch. 22; II, chs. 23-30

ORIENTAL TRADE AND ITS SIGNIFICANCE

The first extract shows the current European ideas respecting the Orient. Marco Polo, a Venetian, with his father and uncle, made a journey into the Far East, an account of which was made public in 1298, three years after the return of the family to Venice. The account had a wide influence in moulding western ideas respecting the east. Columbus himself possessed a copy of the travels of Marco Polo, and his annotations upon its margins, showing his great interest in the eastern trade, can be seen today.

The selections have been chosen to show mainly the conditions of trade and industry in the east. Note the articles of commerce mentioned, and the lines of trade; also the descriptions of golden scenes, always prefaced, however, with the remark that others say such things exist. Marco Polo describes accurately what he himself has seen; and always distinguishes between his own information and that derived from others.

The second extract is from a modern account of the Eastern trade and the influence of the Turks thereon. The third is a brief quotation from Prof. E. P. Cheyney's notable volume in the *American Nation*.

1. To this city [Peiping] every thing that is most rare and valuable in all parts of the world, finds its way, and more especially does this apply to India, which furnishes precious stones, pearls, and various drugs and spices. From the . . . provinces of the empire, whatever there is of value is carried thither, to supply the de-

mands of those multitudes who are induced to establish their residence in the vicinity of the court. The quantity of merchandise sold there exceeds also the traffick of any other place; for no fewer than a thousand carriages and pack-horses loaded with raw-silk make their daily entry, and gold tissues and silks of various kinds are manufactured to an immense extent. . . .

Zipangu [Japan] is an island in the eastern ocean, situated at the distance of about fifteen hundred miles from the main land or coast of Manji [China]. It is of considerable size; its inhabitants have fair complexions, are well made and are civilized in their manners. Their religion is the worship of idols. They are independent of every foreign power, and governed only by their own kings. They have gold in the greatest abundance, its sources being inexhaustible, but as the king does not allow of its being exported, few merchants visit the country, nor is it frequented by much shipping from other ports. To this circumstance we are to attribute the extraordinary richness of the sovereign's palace, according to what we are told by those who have access to the place. The entire roof is covered with a plating of gold, in the same manner as we cover houses, or more properly, churches, with lead. The ceilings of the halls are of the same precious metal; many of the apartments have small tables of pure gold considerably thick; and the windows also have golden ornaments. . . .

An island of very great size named Java, according to the reports of some well-informed navigators, is the largest in the world; being in circuit above three thousand miles. . . . The country abounds with rich commodities. Pepper, nutmegs, spikewood, galangal, cubeb, cloves, and all the other valuable spices and drugs, are the produce of the island; which occasion it to be visited by many ships laden with merchandise, that yields to the owners considerable profit. The quantity of gold collected there exceeds all calculation and belief. From thence it is that the merchants of Zai-tun and Manji [China] in general have imported, and to this day import, that metal to a great amount, and from thence also is obtained the greatest part of the spices that are distributed throughout the world.—*The Travels of Marco Polo* (ed. by W. Marsden, London, 1918), pp. 351, 521, 559, 569, 590, 725.

What statements by Polo about business in the East would interest Europeans? What wrong ideas would they get from his account?

2. While Greek and Roman merchants had enriched themselves by the Indo-European trade, the actual sea-passage from India to Egypt, like the actual caravan route from the

(Continued on page 314)



This 15th Century map, with modern lettering is based upon a Roman map of the first century. How useful would a map be to mariners in Columbus' day?



What varied farm activities are shown in this medieval scene? Identify the implements. What games are the children playing in the foreground?



In contrast to a medieval castle this picture of Levens Hall (England) looks modern. How had gunpowder contributed to the change in architecture? As a home, what were the advantages of Levens Hall over a castle?

Persian Gulf to the Levant, remained in the hands of Semitic races. Colonies of Arabs and Jews settled in an early century of our era, or perhaps before it, on the southern Bombay coast, where their descendants form distinct communities at the present day. The voyages of Sinbad the Sailor are a popular romance of the Indian trade under the caliphs of Baghdad, probably in the ninth century A.D. . . . Sinbad traverses the ocean regions from the Persian Gulf to Malabar, the Maldives Islands, Ceylon, and apparently as far as the Malay Peninsula.

. . . Egypt had passed to the Saracens in 640 A.D. But under its . . . sultans the Indo-Egyptian trade continued to flourish, and probably gained rather than lost by the temporary interruption of the Syrian land-route during the Crusades. Ibn Batuta (1304-1377), who travelled for twenty-four years in Asia, Africa and the Mediterranean, declared Cairo to be the greatest city in the world "out of China," and mentions Alexandria as one of the five chief ports which he had seen. . . .

But the same Turkish avalanche that had thrown itself across the Syrian and Black Sea routes was also to descend on Egypt. The Venetians on their expulsion from Constantinople in 1261 transferred their eastern commerce to Alexandria, and after the capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453, Egypt for a time enjoyed almost a monopoly of the Indian trade. . . . The growth of the Ottoman navy from 1470 onwards began, however, to imperil the Mediterranean outlets of the Indo-Egyptian trade. . . .

In 1470 the Turks wrested the Negropont from Venice with a fleet of one hundred galleys and two hundred transports. Before ten years passed their squadrons swept the Adriatic and ravaged along the Italian coast. In their work of destruction the Turks were aided by an even more savage sea-force from the West. The rise of the Barbary corsairs . . . formed the maritime complement of the Turkish conquests by land. . . .

The same year, 1480, which saw the temporary failure of the Ottomans at Rhodes saw also their capture of Otranto in Italy. In 1499 they crushed the naval force of Venice at Zouchio and Lepanto. By this time the Sea of Marmora and the Black Sea had become Turkish lakes. Turkish fleets and fortresses dominated the Hellespont, the Syrian coast, the Greek harbours, and most of the island trading-stations of the Aegean and the Levant. The use of the Ottomans as a sea-power thus blockaded the Mediterranean outlets of the Indo-Egyptian trade as their use as a land-power had obstructed the Indo-Syrian and Black Sea routes. . . .

The Ottoman seizure or obstruction of the

Indian trade brought disaster not alone to the Mediterranean republics. The blow fell first on Genoa and Venice, but it sent a shock through the whole system of European commerce. The chief channel by which the products of Asia reached the central and northern nations of Christendom was the Hanseatic League. . . .

The Indian trade formed an important contributary to this Hanseatic commerce. When the Eastern traffic began to dry up, its European emporiums declined; when . . . the Cape route was substituted, they withered away. "Grass grew," says Motley, "in the fair and pleasant streets of Bruges, and sea-weed clustered about the halls of Venice." Augsburg which had financed the commerce of Central Europe dwindled into a provincial town. Novgorod suffered in addition to mercantile decay the abolition of its charters by Ivan III in 1475. . . . The Mediterranean marts of Eastern commerce, from Lisbon looking out on the Atlantic, to Venice once mistress of the Adriatic and the Levant, shared in varying degrees the common fate. In the first years of the sixteenth century the Indo-European trade of the Middle Ages lay strangled in the grip of the Turks. —Sir William Wilson Hunter, *A History of British India*, I, pp. 47-53.

Why did this cutting of trade routes between East and West disturb Europeans exceedingly? Why was it that they, and not Asiatics, sought new, trans-ocean routes to link the continents?

3. . . One of the chief luxuries of the Middle Ages was the edible spices. The monotonous diet, the coarse food, the unskillful cookery of medieval Europe had all their deficiencies covered with a charitable mantle of Oriental seasoning. . . .

Pepper, the most common and at the same time the most valued of these spices, was frequently treated as a gift of honor from one sovereign to another, or as a courteous form of payment instead of money. . . . The amount of these spices demanded and consumed was astonishing. Venetian galleys, Genoese car-racks, and other vessels on the Mediterranean brought many a cargo of them westward, and they were sold in fairs and markets everywhere. "Pepper-sack" was a derisive and yet not unappreciative epithet applied by German robber-barons to the merchants whom they plundered as they passed down the Rhine. . . . In romances and chronicles, in cook-books, trade-lists, and customs-tariffs, spices are mentioned with a frequency and consideration unknown in modern times.—Cheyney, *European Background of American History*, pp. 10-12.

How greatly were people handicapped by the lack of refrigeration and canning? Why was the spice trade so important?

mus Ward, he believed as Bret Harte did, that there was more poetry in the rush of a single railroad across America, than in all the glory of ancient Troy.

Only America of 1860 would have appreciated the humor of *The Celebrated Jumping Frog*, for it was directed to the American sense of humor peculiar to that day. The frontiersman had enough drama in forging across Indian territory and in building up a wilderness. He wanted his literature to be humorous, to be an escape. Yet at the same time he wanted it to be a mirror of his own experiences. He was a simple man and he wanted to laugh at men like himself, whom he understood. All this Mark Twain gave to the frontiersman. He took American life and customs, and exaggerated their peculiarities in order to amuse Americans.

In the second period of Mark Twain's writing we find the competitive spirit of the Gilded Age shown up in all its coarse materialism. Mark Twain the man was growing up. He was more mature, and had lost the entirely carefree attitude toward life which was so characteristic of his early works. Instead he had become sensitive to the changes taking place in the American way of life which he loved. Mark Twain's book gave to this era its very name. *The Gilded Age*, with all that it implies, was titled by him for posterity.

This was a turbulent period of American history, which changed the tide of American life. Its difficulties were largely those which grew out of the bitter struggle of the Civil War. Mark Twain felt this change and its importance when he said:

The eight years in America, 1860 to 1868, uprooted institutions that were centuries old, changed politics of people, transformed the social life of half the country, and wrought so profoundly upon the entire national character that the influence cannot be measured short of two or three generations.⁵

During the Gilded Age in America, corruption and competition ran rampant in political life. Grant, not a shrewd politician, seemed unable to curb graft and profiteering in the nation's capital. The Credit Mobilier scandal, involving high officials, was a disgrace to the

country, and was responsible for many Americans' losing faith in their government.

Such were the conditions which led Mark Twain to satirize this age as *The Gilded Age*. His satire was woven around a weary, discouraged man struggling against insurmountable difficulties while his children starved before his eyes. Cleverness in getting what one wants is the keynote. *The Man That Corrupted Hadleyburg*, later in the century, gives an unflattering picture of American greed.

Mark Twain the humorist had outgrown his uncritical audience; yet his audience still insisted on laughing at him. He was desperately in earnest about *The Gilded Age*, and his other satires, in order to show up prominent American political and social institutions which he could not reconcile with the traditional American way of life. Yet the public interpreted his words as the same brand of know nothing, care-nothing humor so characteristic of *Innocents Abroad*. As satire it failed, for his public loved him too much as a humorist.

Mark Twain passed through the Gilded Age as did America. However his humor or even his satire did not survive it. Humor implies writing to amuse, and satire implies writing with the intention of correcting conditions. Mark Twain had given up his dreams of doing both. Instead he plunged into pessimism. He was not the ordinary man of the street whose attitude at this time was, "America has progressed. I am better off than my father or grandfather were. My food and clothing are machine prepared and therefore cheaper. I don't work as hard and I make more money." No, Mark Twain had long been a thinking man. He was not intellectual, nor did he always act in good taste; but he was always sincere in regard to problems in American life. Finding them insoluble, he turned pessimist. In this defeatism he was typical of the tragic reaction of the thinking man at the turn of the century, engulfed in American materialism.

The scientist had offered a scientific solution to man's problems. Science could build bigger and better machines for anything. It could protect man from dangerous disease and give him luxury at a low cost. It could even give him a possible solution to the problem of the creation of the universe. Science, natural

⁵ *Ibid*, p. 6.

science, held the answer to everything. But science failed, for man was not happy. He was not as well off as the buoyant frontiersman had been, and his problems were mounting daily in a more complex society.

Philosophy, too, thought it had the answer to man's condition at the turn of the century. Man was driven by a force, said Henry Adams, following the materialistic school of thought. This is a force driving man to do, to build, to cause. But materialistic philosophy also failed because of the current mistaken and distorted concept of man.

Mark Twain, like his contemporaries, lacked the correct answer, for he too lacked religion. The answer was there; but either he overlooked it, or he chose to ignore it. Instead he decided that the human race was incapable of uplifting itself. It may have been created by a God, but after that it was on its own, and the individual man's only escape was his assurance of death. Repeatedly he referred to his formerly beloved human race as, "This mangy human race." In his astonishing work, *What Is Man*, he declared:

Man the machine—man the impersonal engine. Whatever a man is, is due to his make, and to the influences brought to bear upon it by his heredities, his habitat, his associations. He is moved, directed, commanded, by exterior influences solely. He originates nothing, not even a thought.⁶

Again, he states; "Love, Hate, Charity, Compassion, Avarice, Benevolence . . . they are all forms of self contentment, self gratification."⁷ In the words of the Old Man in the story, who in reality represents Mark Twain himself, self approval is our breath, our heart, our blood.

How paradoxical it is to hear a self-confirmed

⁶ Mark Twain, *What Is Man*, p. 5.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 28.

lover of his fellow man proclaim: "Man is the meanest of all animals. If you pick up a starving dog and make him prosperous, he will not bite you. This is the principal difference between a dog and a man."⁸ What strange words from the pen of America's greatest humorist. How ironical, and yet how typical of the despair felt by the thinking man, who looks at man and in looking cannot see God, and thus can see no purpose in man's life on earth.

Yes, in Mark Twain's evolution from humorist, to satirist, to pessimist, we can observe the changing American social scene of the latter half of the nineteenth century. His humor represents the contemporary American attitude toward life, his satire shows up the competitive spirit of the Gilded Age, and his pessimism represents the reaction of the thinking man to that materialistic age.

Mark Twain was the voice of an age which saw America grow from the frontier days to industrial America in the raw.

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⁸ James M. Gillis, *False Prophets*, p. 136.

Employee Training - A Challenging Field for the Educator

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1. Introduction

Employee training on an organized basis is relatively new, dating, in the United States,

from about 1917. The field is still in a somewhat formative stage but has gained substantial recognition. It has expanded rapidly dur-

ing the present decade and furnishes one more outlet for the services of the educator. The field of employee training gives the educator an additional opportunity for pioneering and for the display of initiative in developing new programs.¹

Public school teachers and administrators have few problems in the training of employees as compared with those persons who are responsible for conducting employee training in industry and government. Public school men have a tremendous job of preparing in a general way millions of pupils for employment in many fields of work and in a multiplicity of jobs. Industry and government, on the other hand, train millions of employees to perform specific jobs, and even to perform specific job operations.

Much of our social studies curriculum deals with training for citizenship. Adults, as well as students in school, are susceptible to training in citizenship. In the employee training field one deals with adult citizens on whom the responsibilities of citizenship have already fallen. Through the attitudes highlighted by the training director and his staff a salutary and forceful impact can be made on a large number of employees.

It is the purpose of this article to point out to public school men and women the nature of employee training. This is being done in order that they may be able to obtain a broad general picture of the field.

- (1) to use in counseling their students (the nation's future employees) as to training which may be expected after securing employment, and

¹ Two standard works in the field of employee training were written by Charles R. Allen, 1862-1938, a pioneer in the field. They were published in 1919 and 1922, respectively, by the J. B. Lippincott Company. One deals with training the worker, the other concerns the training of his supervisor. These books are entitled, *The Instructor, the Man and the Job* (373 pages), and *The Foreman and His Job* (534 pages).

Mr. Allen was agent for Industrial Training of boys and men, Massachusetts Board of Education, Superintendent of Instructor Training, U. S. Shipping Board, Emergency Fleet Corporation, special agent, Federal Board for Vocational Education, and headed Foreman Conferences, Employment Managers Section, Niagara Falls, New York, Chamber of Commerce.

Two books which give an over-all treatment of the subject of employee training were published by McGraw-Hill Book Company in 1942 and by Harper in 1949. The former, by Alfred M. Cooper, is entitled *Employee Training* (311 pages), the latter, by George D. Halsey, is entitled *Training Employees* (263 pages).

- (2) to indicate that the employee training field is one in which the experienced and imaginative educator can be of service.

The development of personnel—the assisting of one employee, and the improvement of an entire staff—is a satisfying work. Like developing a student in high school or college, the development of a trainee on a job is an important matter. It is vital to that one learner and important to the nation. Since the person who is responsible for training the employees of an organization learns much about the overall functioning of the organization and works closely with top management he is in a position to build a program of far-reaching significance. This opportunity provides satisfaction as well as a challenge.

It is a fundamental concept of employee training that best methods of doing a job should be shared rather than hoarded. The tendency of employees to guard their "trade secrets" melts into the background when a training program functions effectively. Organized training attempts to find the best methods of doing a job and shares them so as to make workers more productive and the job less tedious and fatiguing. This is a democratic concept. It aims at a higher standard of living for everyone.

Much has been said and written about the differences between education and training. Frequently the terms are used interchangeably. Similar methods, such as the use of visual aids, carefully planned demonstrations, drill, and testing, are used in both. In general, education provides a broad background for life and training furnishes the knowledge, skill, and attitude necessary to perform a specific job.

Quite a few of the persons organizing and operating employee training programs have had a background of experience in leading conferences, training instructors, and organizing special types of educational programs. A considerable number of the persons responsible for employee training, nevertheless, have not had a background of educational work. Many such persons have been outstanding employees of their organizations and were selected to do the training job due to their versatility. In most instances they are quick to learn about,

apply, and adapt the techniques used by the educator.

Much of the training received by inexperienced employees is received on-the-job from their experienced supervisors. This training, however, must be supplemented. The supervisors themselves must be trained to impart information well and should be kept informed of new techniques relating to their job.

A considerable part of the training given by an organization to its employees applies particularly to the situation which exists in the organization. The training is designed primarily to meet the special needs of the organization and to lower its operating costs.

Employees are expected to be trained in their respective fields before entering on duty as typists, machinists, and the like. After entering on duty they are given training which is found necessary to increase their usefulness on the particular job to which they are assigned.

Seldom do government agencies or private corporations provide their employees with general education. Some organizations, however, encourage the employee to increase his or her general education during leisure time, and show them how this can be done.²

2. *Objective of Employee Training*

The objective of employee training is the improvement of on-the-job performance by employees. This objective is attained through the following four areas of activity.

(1) *Appropriate and Sufficient Induction Training.* This training is conducted after the employee enters on duty and, like most employee training, is designed to meet special needs. It is conducted to acquaint groups of new employees with the aims and framework of the organization and to introduce them to their job. Induction training, frequently referred to as "orientation," should be designed in such a manner as to provide an initial training

² The April, 1949 issue of *Education* (volume 69), published by The Palmer Company, Boston, contains an article entitled "The Scope, Organization, and Principles of Training in Industry." In this article the authors, Earl G. Planty, Executive Counselor, Johnson and Johnson, and William S. McCord, Industrial Relations Director, Personal Products Corporation, emphasize the need for the employer to furnish as much general education as is necessary for the total development of the employee. The extent to which employee training, at the expense of the employer, should go beyond the development of specific skills and attitudes essential to the employee's job is a matter of conjecture.

ing and screening which is fair to both employer and employee.

(2) *Proper Placement.* The testing and rating of employees to measure mental ability and to discover attitudes and special abilities is an important function of personnel training. This testing and rating is carried on in order to attempt to place employees as nearly as possible in the job assignment for which fitted by interest and ability. Subsequent to initial assignment an appropriate follow-up must be made so that the employee is not forgotten and left on a job which may become unsuitable in comparison with other placements which could be made rather easily within the organization.

(3) *Training for More Responsible Assignments.* Preparation of employees for increasingly difficult or advanced work is necessary due to turnover of personnel and a lack of persons who are capable of stepping into an organization and carrying on, immediately, highly specialized work. Government agencies and private corporations teach selected employees to perform technical skills, such as cable splicing, and develop potential supervisors and executives.

(4) *Refresher Training.* This type of training is designed to increase the usefulness of employees by keeping them up to a reasonable standard of performance and to bring them up-to-date as to new or improved methods relating to their work. Refresher training enables the employee to keep abreast of technical skills, of trends affecting his or her organization, and of changes in its policies. It also provides a means by which supervisors can improve methods of dealing with their employees, and gives employees an opportunity to restudy their jobs to find better methods of performing the work. Refresher training is provided continually for some employees and intermittently for others depending on the philosophy of the organization concerned and the nature of its jobs.

The educator can give a professional touch to employee training programs and can show how professional standards can be maintained. He can, for instance, set up an examining schedule and show why adherence to it is necessary. Employees who fail to meet the standard must be weeded out if the standard and the

training program is to have meaning and if it is to attain its objective—improvement of on-the-job performance.

3. Typical Problems in Developing an Employee Training Program

In developing a training program for the employees of an organization many problems arise. Similar problems may arise year after year but may require different treatment due to change in the labor market, or to a change in the budget situation, philosophy, or functions of the organization. A rapidly shrinking labor market in a technical field will create a need for much additional training in one organization, while having no effect on organizations in other fields. Rapid advance in the techniques used by a corporation in manufacturing its product, and sudden changeover to the manufacture of a new product present problems, just as is the case when government agencies are given additional functions.

In planning an employee training program one must meet both immediate and long term training needs. Low morale or a decision to install new equipment present an immediate training need. Among the long term needs are such matters as induction training and the selection and preparation of employees for "key" positions involving supervision and technical operations in which they are not experienced.

The organization and operation of employee training programs requires leadership ability and experience in the techniques of instruction and educational organization. In organizing programs and carrying them through successfully the training director must "sell" his ideas all along the line, from top management down through department heads, first-line supervisors, and routine workers, and must show results. There are many pitfalls and obstructions which can cause the termination of a training program and which discourage any training officer.

The following are a few broad problems of the type employee training directors must wrestle with frequently:

- (1) How much training can an applicant be expected to have prior to employment?
- (2) How much and what type training should be given to each worker?

- (3) How can methods of presenting subject matter be devised in such a way as to hold the interest of the adult trainee?
- (4) How can the training program be used as a means of maintaining the interest of the worker in his or her job?
- (5) How can the efficiency of the worker be improved during the second year he or she is assigned to a relatively complex job?
- (6) When should trainees be promoted to more difficult assignments and who should decide when trainees are ready for promotion?
- (7) What types of training records should be maintained?
- (8) How should pressure from the head of a department or field office be withheld so as to adhere to standards on separations and promotions?

4. Methods of Employment Training

Well organized training which meets the needs of a unit vitally affects the employees who comprise the unit. Without such training an organization tends to stagnate. With it improvement is assured.

Training of employed persons is handled from a practical angle. After induction training particular care is taken to make training obviously useful and interesting. Many workers benefit little from lectures and regular classroom procedures. Therefore, much use is made of job analyses, planned conferences, visual aids, special demonstrations, individual on-the-job instructions, and various types of testing. Training by means of correspondence courses related to the work is a method which is used in the training of employees scattered over wide areas.

The job analysis is a listing of all items to be performed on a job. For some jobs the analysis is lengthy, for others brief. In each instance the analysis enables one to determine quickly of what the job consists. Due to its completeness and constant availability it is exceedingly useful to both instructor and trainee.

In conducting a planned conference on a particular topic the leader draws out relevant experience and observations from a group of employees, has the group evaluate the experience and observations presented, and skillfully teaches the group at the same time. This con-

ference is highly effective in capturing the interest of adults, in stimulating their thinking, and in channeling information to them.

Thousands of charts, hundreds of silent and sound motion picture films and silent and sound filmstrips, a large number of illustrated manuals, and many special exhibits have been prepared by corporations and by government agencies with the purpose of using a visual method in training their employees. This visual method presents just as many problems in training employees as it does when used in public schools. There is a constant problem of selecting an appropriate aid, or, in its absence, developing one. It is necessary to devise ways of using the visual aid after it is available.

Special demonstrations are used to good advantage and rather extensively in training employees. During the last ten years "telephone effectiveness" has been demonstrated in Washington to thousands of employees of the federal government. This was accomplished through demonstrating effective and ineffective use of the telephone and recording and playing back to employees, for analysis, their own telephone conversations.

Since workers are at their machines or desks, or at other posts of duty, with experienced personnel in their immediate vicinity, on-the-job instruction is a method of training which can be carried out economically among many groups of employees. Such instruction, however, must be planned and should usually be standardized in order to make it worth the effort which it costs. A four-step process is used in conducting on-the-job instruction. The steps consist of the following:

- (1) *Preparation of the trainee to receive the instruction*—arousing interest and starting with the known in proceeding to the new.
- (2) *Presentation of information*—explaining and demonstrating correctly.
- (3) *Application of the information*—helping the trainee perform the job operation or explain the process.
- (4) *Testing*—checking to see that the trainee can do the job correctly without assistance or explain the process accurately without help.

A fundamental principle of on-the-job instruction requires that job operations or processes should be taught one at a time in order that one small unit will be mastered before the next is begun.

A variety of tests are used to determine types of training to be given an employee. During and following a training period they are used to determine how much and how well the employee has learned. Some of these tests are of the paper-and-pencil type. Others call for actual manual performance—the operation of a machine, the sharpening of a tool, the selection of necessary parts and supplies for a repair job, and the like.

Many tests have been devised to determine attitudes and personal qualities of employees and prospective employees and are used in both government and industry.³

Correspondence study is used as a means of disseminating facts and points of view to employees who may be scattered over the entire country.⁴ Frequently the correspondence courses used as the basis for this method of employee training are prepared under the supervision of the training director. The mimeographed or printed lessons are mailed to employees and are graded by the training staff.

5. *Extent of Employee Training in the United States*

Today training programs for employees are found throughout the United States. They are found in many large corporations and in all departments and most agencies of the federal government.

Among the corporations having extensive employee training programs are Metropolitan

³ Tests which purport to measure attitudes and personality are still in a developmental stage and have not been accepted universally. Two tests in this area which are of assistance in selecting employees to be trained for supervisory work are the Strong Vocational Interest Blank and the Bernreuter Personality Inventory.

⁴ The United States Forest Service makes correspondence courses available to its employees, many of whom are located in isolated areas in the national forests. These courses deal with regulations concerning permits for fencing of, and timber sales from, federal land, and the like. The courses include actual and hypothetical situations and call for the employee's solution to the cases. This in turn requires judgment and a review of Forest Service policies and procedures.

The Bureau of Internal Revenue, Treasury Department, has a current enrollment (July, 1949) of 22,000 employees in correspondence courses dealing with accounting and various tax laws. These employees are working in many parts of the country.

Life Insurance Company, Standard Oil Company of New Jersey, Macy's Department Store in New York City, Republic Steel Corporation, General Motors Corporation, General Electric Company, Radio Corporation of America, and the American Telephone and Telegraph Company.

The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company has an elaborate induction training program for its new employees. The General Motors Corporation operates the General Motors Institute at Flint, Michigan.⁵ The General Electric Company has issued extensive materials for the training of its sales force. At its training center in Elizabeth, New Jersey, the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey conducts a broad program of supervisory training.⁶

The *Training Specialists' Directory* issued by the Training Officers Conference, U. S. Government, is a professional skills subject matter guide for Training Officers.⁷ The following categories, taken from its list of 33, give some idea as to the range of the training program conducted for federal employees:

Apprentice Training
Clerical and Secretarial Training
Conference Leadership
Fiscal Training
Foreign Language Training
Intern Training in Specialized and Administrative Fields
Management and Administrative Training
Office Management
Orientation Training
Statistical Staff Training
Supervisory Training

⁵ The foreword to the Institute's catalogue listing 1948-1949 offerings states that the Institute provides "broad and varied programs of education and training for General Motors employees of all levels of responsibility from executives to hourly workers, so that they may be better fitted for their present work and better prepared for promotion." The catalogue lists 110 faculty members and many courses. Among the courses offered are the following: Automobile Construction and Maintenance, Motor Vehicle Construction and Operation, Automotive Physics, Integral Calculus, Applied Psychology, Foundry Engineering, Retail Sales Management, and Managerial Cost Control.

⁶ The program is described in two large-size brochures. One is entitled *Supervisor Training*, is 20 pages in length, and was issued by the Training Division at 42 Broadway, New York, in December, 1946. The other, undated, is entitled *Basics of Supervision, An Esso Training Center Course* and contains six pages of text describing the course.

⁷ Issued in 1949, 35 pages, Washington, D. C.

Training by Correspondence Training for Service Abroad

The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 and the George-Barden Act of 1948 make available to the states federal funds which can be used for training employees in public and other service occupations. These funds are administered through the Department of Education in the respective states and result in training for such occupations as firemen, custodians, school bus drivers, street and highway maintenance workers, water and sewage disposal workers, health and safety inspectors, hotel employees, practical nurses, domestics in homes, food handlers, and laundry employees. In some instances the State Department of Education provides for special schools, as for employees of municipal fire departments. In other instances, such as on receipt of requests from employers engaged in service occupations, through public school channels, the State Department of Education may respond by assisting in setting up or in improving a training program.

Some of the states have made rather wide use of federal matching funds in developing employee training programs. A recent report of the Public Service Institute of Pennsylvania, which operates as a part of the Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, indicates that during the ten years of its existence more than 40,000 employees have received training through the Institute.⁸ Many of these persons were public employees.

6. The Future of Employee Training

Employee training is expensive. We have little in the way of concrete, measurable evidence to indicate the ratio between its cost and value. Research needs to be conducted to determine the appropriateness of text and visual materials used in the training of employees, the reliability of certain types of tests used in employee training programs, and to evaluate the effectiveness of the training itself. To conduct this research the techniques of the educator are

⁸ *A Ten-Year Report of the Public Service Institute 1938-1948, An In-Service Training Program for Local and State Government Officials and Employees in Pennsylvania*, March, 1949, 19 pages, Harrisburg, Pa.

Among other states doing outstanding employee training under George-Barden funds are Alabama, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Iowa, Michigan, Mississippi, Ohio, Oregon, Texas, Virginia, and Washington.

essential. As tangible results of such research become available from time to time it will be possible to improve and expand employee training programs.

As training directors build and maintain effective programs the demand for employee training is likely to increase. However, if persons lacking the techniques of the educator secure most of the employee training positions and fail to acquire those techniques quickly, the demand by management for employee training may decrease.

To be successful in building an employee training program four abilities are necessary; one must be able to

- (1) Apply sound educational and training techniques.
- (2) Work with adult trainees, gain their confidence, and arouse their interest in self-improvement.
- (3) Supervise a staff.
- (4) Work with and sell management on the value of training.

The lack of any one of these abilities will be a serious handicap to one's success in the training of employees.

If a large majority of the persons entering the employee training field in the United States during the next ten years possess these four abilities and use them reasonably well there will be a continuous demand for employee training. Few large corporations and few government agencies in this country will then be able to afford to do without rather extensive programs a decade hence. There is no definite immediate indication that competition between nations will lessen noticeably in the near future. Nor is there a definite indication that public debts will soon be greatly reduced. Therefore, the cost of goods and services is not likely to decrease quickly. This means keen competition between nations and between corporations and a necessity for corporations and government agencies to operate efficiently.

We live in an increasingly technical world—a world of complicated machines, intricate procedures, and global operations and competition. In such a world a large per cent of employees must be trained more or less continuously in order that they may do effective work. This prospect presenting many opportunities to the educator is a great challenge.

The Teachers' Page

H. M. BOODISH

Chairman, Social Studies Department, Dobbins Vocational Technical School, Philadelphia

A number of teachers were both disturbed and pleased, during the first few days of their return to school, by an editorial which appeared in the *Philadelphia Evening Bulletin* (September 8, 1949). The editorial commented upon a statement made at a conference in Denver by Dr. D. S. Arbuckle, psychology professor at Boston University. The subject concerned *tension in the classroom*. "The professor stated," read the editorial, "that strain and stress in the schoolroom are 'almost entirely a product of the teacher' . . .

" . . . that children are all right until somebody tries to make them behave themselves. He objects to disciplinarians, both the 'bruiser' and the 'verbal' type. He criticizes the 'moralizing' teacher and the judicial teacher and the teacher who wears a 'this hurts me more than it hurts you' expression."

It is understandable that these comments, appearing on the first day of the new school year (a well timed editorial), should disturb some teachers. Fair or not, hostile criticism about one's work, especially when one has spent years in training and more years in practice, is not easy to take. The editorial, however, took a broad view of the subject and continued with comments more favorable to the teacher.

"Maybe he (Dr. Arbuckle) overlooks the fact that a classroom of kids is chock-full of misdirected energy, mischief and original sin, and that teacher's first job is to create order out of chaos. . . . It would be a good idea, perhaps, to turn a psychologist loose in a typical eighth-grade classroom on a sunny September morning and see what comes of it."

No one who is continuously confronted with children in a classroom can read Dr. Arbuckle's

comments without reacting as did the editorial. Too frequently, perhaps, do both experts and laymen take teachers to task as to what they ought to do or ought not to do. That, perhaps, is inevitable because, as teachers, we are public property. The product of our labor does affect almost every individual. Furthermore, every human being considers himself a teacher because by the very nature of our social setting, everyone sometimes teaches someone else.

However, as human beings, it is natural for teachers to feel abused when publicly taken to task, particularly, when the critic does not take into account the numerous other factors that may be responsible for what appears to be poor teaching, or tension in the classroom, or for half the people not voting in the primaries. Yet, as we all know, criticism (in moderation, of course) is healthy in any profession. That there occasionally is tension in the classroom, no teacher can deny. Whether that tension is chiefly of the teacher's making (as is believed by Dr. Arbuckle) or a product of the cultural conditioning of the children depends upon both the teacher and the pupils. In either case, it is a problem that the teacher must face and try to solve.

We know that teaching, "is not always a path of roses." In an earlier issue, reference was made to a university professor's comment that, frequently, those we are supposed to teach are like a group of barbarians who by their very manner challenge one to try to teach them anything. We are aware of the many other factors that impinge upon the quality of one's teaching, such as size of teaching load, monetary compensation, the presence or absence of teaching facilities, as well as the quality of the students and the home and cultural backgrounds that molded them. Yet, there is the teacher himself—his own personality—that is involved.

This brings us to the crux of a very challenging problem, particularly for social studies teachers. Putting it in question form, the problem is: What is it that we are really trying to do when we teach social studies? Is a knowledge of history important for history's sake, or are there more practical reasons for knowing

history? What is the real purpose in teaching problems of democracy? Are we after knowledge? skills? attitudes? patterns of behavior?

There have been many objectives expressed or implied in connection with the teaching of the social studies. They all converge upon the central theme of making the student a good citizen. The real problem is, are we achieving these objectives in our classroom? If we think we are, how do we know it? Is the boy who makes an "A" or a "B" in history or economics going to be a better citizen than the boy who makes a "D" or "C"? What do these grades really measure? knowledge? attitude? cooperation? What part of the grade reveals competency as a future citizen?

These questions are raised not in hostile criticism of what we as teachers are doing, but rather in a sense of taking stock. It is our opinion that they point to the real challenge that confronts all teachers, but particularly the teachers of social studies. In other words, how do we know that what we are doing in our classrooms produces the desired outcomes as expressed by the objectives of education in the social studies? There is a real need for experimentation in new methods of teaching and testing that will give more conclusive evidence that the social studies are developing in the student attitudes, appreciations, skills, and patterns of behavior, as well as giving him knowledge, all of which combined, will make him the type of citizen that our objectives of education say he ought to be.

This constitutes the fourth issue of *The Teachers' Page*. It was thought that this page might serve as an avenue for the exchange of opinions and of matters of general interest to teachers. It has not been our intention to make this page the sounding board for our own pet ideas and thinking. We realize that the first few issues appeared at an inopportune time. However, now begins a period of at least eight months when we teachers are in the midst of teaching and all that it involves. We have had a summer's vacation (or work other than teaching) and are girded for the task ahead. Surely, some of us have had experiences that have made a lasting impression and are of significance to teaching. What are some of these experiences? What are some of the plans that have been made for the coming year regarding the teach-

ing of American or world history? What new books have we read that are of particular value in teaching controversial issues? What problems in methodology concerning the less bright students do some of us have? Finally, what is the reaction to some of the material presented in *The Teacher's Page*?

You may have gathered that it has been our purpose, thus far in this page, to either stimulate or irritate you to the point that you would want to express your own opinions or reactions. We hope that we have been successful in this endeavor. We want to stress again, therefore, that *The Teachers' Page* welcomes your letters.

Visual and Other Aids

R. T. SOLIS-COHEN
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

UNITED NATIONS

Department of Public Information
Films and Visual Information Division
Atomic Energy—Problems of International Control. 35 mm., single frame Film Strip is available in English, French, Chinese, Russian and Spanish. Suited to adults interested in political and social science. No charge to universities, clubs, churches, etc.

The purpose of this film strip is to serve as a basis for group discussion. The strip presents the history of the formation of the United Nations Atomic Energy Commission, and an account of its tasks. The second part of this offering concerns the main plans for the international control of atomic energy as presented by the various governments and the arguments for and against each plan. The third, concluding part sets forth the main areas of disagreement.

Each film strip will be distributed together with two copies of the script and a Discussion Leader's Guide.

POPULAR SCIENCE PUBLISHING COMPANY
Audio-Visual Division
353 Fourth Avenue, New York 10

Exploring Through Maps. With this film strip series there is a Teaching Guide. Packaged together the kit is priced at \$16.50.

Adapted to the fifth, sixth and seventh grade geography and social studies curriculum, this series consists of four filmstrips. The first, "Maps and Their Meanings," in color, explains the use of symbols and color as aids in reading maps. The other three strips are in black and white.

We Live on a Huge Ball explains the concept of latitude.

Flat Maps of a Round World explains the concept of longitude and shows the various types of map projections representing the globe.

Maps and Men reviews the facts in the whole series and demonstrates by examples the use of maps in business, recreation, travel, the study of history, geography, etc.

Transportation Around the World. Consists of six film strips in black and white and average fifty frames each. \$19.50 for the series. A teaching guide is included free.

This series of film strips tells the story of the history of transportation to elementary school children. *Wheels, Animals, and Men* shows the development of the wheel and how muscle power did the work of primitive transportation. *Engines, Rails and Roads* illustrates the invention of trolley cars, railroad trains, automobiles, etc. *Steam, Sail, and Muscle* portrays water transportation from primitive rafts to ocean liners.

Water Travel Today shows a variety of boats in use all over the world at the present time. *Conquering the Airways* tells the story of aerial pioneering and the growth of man's conquest of the air lanes. *Safety in Transportation* is self-explanatory.

MCGRAW-HILL BOOK COMPANY
330 West 42nd Street
New York 18, N. Y.

Six filmstrip series are correlated with McGraw-Hill textbooks which have achieved prominence in their individual fields. These

Text-Film series and the books with which they are correlated include:

Etiquette, with *Manners Made Easy*, by Beery. Chemistry, with *Chemistry for Our Times*, by Weaver and Foster. Accounting, with *Accounting Fundamentals*, by MacFarland and Ayars. American Government, with *American System of Government*, by Ferguson and McHenry. Zoology, with *General Zoology*, by Storer, and Biology, with *Biology, the Science of Life*, by MacDougall and Hegner.

All filmstrips are available as a complete series, or separately, by direct purchase from the McGraw-Hill Book Company, Text-Film Department.

CORONET NEWS BUREAU
65 East South Water
Chicago 1, Illinois

Coronet's films are available for purchase at \$90.00 in full color and at \$45.00 in black and white.

You and Your Work. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: John N. Given, Supervisor of Business Education, Los Angeles City Board of Education.

By means of concrete example, this film explains the necessity of being happy in one's job and adjusted to it for success.

Developing Leadership. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: William E. Young, Divisional Director, University of the State of New York.

The principles of leadership demonstrated in this film will contribute to the growth of leadership qualities in its audience. The film is suitable for a high school, college or adult audience.

Way to Good Habits. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: William E. Young.

Instead of constantly saying "Don't do that—that's a bad habit," this film shows how to substitute good habits for bad ones and stimulates elementary school pupils to form good habits.

Improve Your Pronunciation. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: Davis Edwards, Associate Professor of Speech, University of Chicago.

In order to achieve this objective, the author suggests to junior and senior high school pupils, college and adult students that they enunciate

every syllable, pronounce each sound correctly, and use accepted and natural pronunciations.

Carbon and Its Compounds. One reel. Sound.

Color or black and white. Collaborator: Therald Moeller, Associate Professor of Chemistry, University of Illinois.

By demonstrating such simple familiar objects as a pencil and charcoal as forms of carbon, the film goes on to show the more complex forms of the latter and its importance in domestic and industrial life. This film should be of interest to senior high school and college students.

Family Life. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: Florence M. King, Assistant Professor of Home Economics, University of Illinois.

The author points out the satisfaction to be gained from a well-managed home, and suggests the means for its achievement.

Discussion in Democracy. One reel. Sound.

Color or black and white. Collaborator: William G. Brink, Professor of Education, Northwestern University.

Preparation, planning and personalities form the three-fold program for an adequate organized discussion in a democratic society. This film is adapted for the needs of junior and senior high school pupils, and for college and adult students.

The Supreme Court. One reel. Sound. Color or black and white. Collaborator: Marshall Dimock, Professor of Political Science, Northwestern University.

This story about the Supreme Court is unfolded as the audience follows a case which goes through the lower courts to the final hearing before the Supreme Court. The latter is set forth as the guardian of our Constitutional rights. The film which shows the Court's functions, powers and jurisdiction, should interest high school, college and adult students.

PAMPHLETS
FILM COUNCIL OF AMERICA
Film Council of America
6 West Ontario Street
Chicago 10, Illinois

The Film Counselor Vol. II Issue 4 Sept.-Oct.
1948.

The Film Counselor Vol. II Issue 5 Nov.-Dec.
1948.

These pamphlets contain news reports of the work of film councils in various places throughout the United States.

United Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers of America (UE—CIO)
11 East 51st Street
New York 22, N. Y.

Teacher's Kit.

Classroom material on unionism has been made available free by the United Electrical, Radio and Machine Workers of America. This includes three 16 mm. sound films:

Deadline for Action illustrates the need of every citizen's engaging in political activity.

Our Union explains how a union is organized and conducts its business.

The Great Swindle is the story of inflation.

Published material expressing opinions against the Taft-Hartley Law, scripts from the UE national radio program, and a children's story, "Chug Chug" are included in this kit.

Your Union at Work is a booklet on how a union is organized and how it fights for its members.

UE Record presents the history of the UE and conditions in industry before organization.

A Message to Teachers from a Labor Union is a leaflet which describes the Teacher's Kit and is packed with it.

Teaching Film Custodians, Inc.

25 West 43rd Street, New York 18, N. Y.

Teacher Guide to the Classroom Motion Pictures Adapted from Featured Films.

The House of Rothschild (20th Century Fox)

The Crusades (Paramount)

Driven Westward (20th Century Fox)

Marc Antony of Rome (Paramount)

Johnson and Reconstruction (M.G.M.)

Winning Our Independence (Columbia)

Conquest (M.G.M.)

Drums Along the Mohawk (20th Century Fox)

Each guide presents the film's objectives, its content, its historical background, suggestions for further research, and questions for discussion.

MAGAZINES

See and Hear. National Magazine of Sight and Sound in Education.

The issue of October, 1948, was devoted chiefly to community relations and that of November to floor plans of classrooms designed for audio-visual education. The following month's issue was a holiday number. The January, 1949, number was concerned with teacher training materials and February's issue with Brotherhood Week. The March, 1949, periodical was devoted to Film Council Month.

This magazine publishes articles about its special interest, notes on new materials and on a film library service, audio-visual budget reports and a National Directory of Visual Education Dealers.

SLIDES

Franco American Audio-Visual Distribution Center, Inc.

934 Fifth Avenue
New York 21, N. Y.

Slides are available showing the following regions: Alsace, Auvergne, Brittany, Mont St. Michel, Normandie, Guyenne, Languedoc, Orleanais, Poitou, and Aunis.

The following subjects are also represented in the slide collection: French agriculture, art, costumes, ecclesiastical architecture and stained glass, geography, historic monuments, houses typical of each of a number of regions, people at work, at school, at market and in parks, trade and industry, transportation, and village life in Poitou.

These slides may be purchased singly at \$1.25 or in sets of 30 or more at a 20 per cent discount.

CATALOG

A Catalog of Selected Publications. Published by the British Information Services, September, 1948. 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, New York.

In this catalog are listed free publications consisting of booklets for non-specialists and reference materials for specialists.

The Services can also supply a wide range of film strips and pictorial material including posters, charts, maps and picture card sets.

BOOKS

Filmstrips. By Vera M. Falconer. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1949. Pp. 572. Illustrated. \$5.00.

A Handbook for filmstrip instructional and training use in business and industry, this man-

ual contains a complete filmstrip distributor directory.

Educational Film Guide. New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1948. \$4.00.

A complete revision of the 1947 edition, this Guide contains two new features. All films which are listed only in Part I have brief descriptive notes given under the main title entry. A geographical directory of local distributors of 16 mm. motion pictures has been added following the Directory of Main Sources.

EQUIPMENT

A Picture Portfolio of Model Classrooms. Designs for Visual Education Series. Chicago, Ill.: Da-Lite Screen Company, Inc., 1949.

These pictures of the idealized classroom present a flexible, functional arrangement with due attention given to proper lighting, and acoustics as well as place for storage and use of audio-visual equipment.

Audio-Visual Evaluation Files and Forms. W. A. Wittich (Ed.), Madison, Wisconsin.

Elementary School Audio-Visual Materials File (includes box, guides, subject tabs, 200 evaluation forms). \$4.50 each.

Secondary School Audio-Visual Materials File (includes box, guides, subject tabs, 250 evaluation forms). \$5.50 each.

Audio-Visual Director's File (elementary, secondary, pre- and in-service training subjects; includes box, guides, subject tabs, 450 evaluation forms). \$10.00 each.

Additional Evaluation Forms at \$1.50 per hundred.

S.V.E. Combination Slide and Filmstrip Cabinet. Chicago, Ill.: Society for Visual Education, Inc. Retail price \$150.00. Discount 25 per cent.

S.V.E. International Model Gasoline-Kerosene Powered, Tri-Purpose Projector for 2" x 2" Slides, Single and Double Frame Filmstrips. \$87.50 f.o.b. Chicago.

For use where electricity is not available, especially for missionary and rural schools.

S.V.E. "Entertainer 300" 2" x 2" slide projector with automatic slide changing mechanism. \$75.00 with case.

S.V.E. Professional "1000." A 1,000-watt Tri-Purpose projector, designed for large audiences, and for use where an abundance of light is required. \$150.00, with case.

S.V.E. Instructor 300. A streamlined Tri-Purpose projector with completely coated optical system and new threading and operating features. \$90.00 with case.

News and Comment

LEONARD B. IRWIN

Principal, High School, Haddon Heights, New Jersey

THE CONTROVERSIAL SOCIAL STUDIES

Teachers of the social studies have long been accustomed to seeing their subject the center of one type of controversy or another. They have been accused of neglecting valuable historical lessons or of over-emphasizing useless and impractical details; of being the tools of communism, socialism or reaction; of trying to teach too much or of teaching too little; of neglecting the realities of the present or of stirring up discontent and cynicism among the young. Both the content and the method of the social studies have been in a constant state of flux and controversy and no doubt will continue to be, since by its very nature it deals with material which itself is never settled—man's relationships to man.

An interesting résumé of the major disputes in the social studies field since the First World War was written for the Winter number of *The Harvard Educational Review* by Leo J. Alilunas of the State Teachers College, Fredonia, New York. It was during the war, in 1916, that the National Educational Association's Committee on Social Studies challenged the nineteenth century concept of social studies as essentially history; the committee called for the expansion of the curriculum to include other phases of the study of social relationships. This was the move that provided the basis for the disputes that followed, for as long as the social studies curriculum of the schools confined itself to the traditional teaching of formal his-

tory there was little ground for complaint from anyone except the reformers. But the expanded curriculum was open to a wide variety of applications and theories in content, materials and teaching methods. The "fusion" movement was one of the earliest developments. This attempted to wipe out all traditional subject boundaries and teach only that material which should have value in "developing in pupils intelligent understandings and tolerant, cooperative appreciations fitting them to engage in the activities of the life of the time." The subject matter chosen was organized in "units of experience . . . corresponding as closely as possible to life situations." Dr. Harold Rugg of Teachers College was the high priest of the fusion movement and two million copies of his textbooks were sold.

The "integrated" curriculum, sponsored by the Progressive Education Association, was the next development. Its ideal was a curriculum in which subjects as such would disappear entirely, to be replaced by "activities" adjusted to the purposes, needs and capacities of the pupils. Out of the chaos of reform in the social studies came such other concepts as the "core curriculum," the "social-process approach," the "areas - of - human - activity curriculum" and others, until the public as well as the classroom teacher might be forgiven for thinking that the educational experts were developing a new language of their own. There was considerable reaction within the profession to the extremes of the new theorists and the more radical features of their programs were not too widely adopted. However, the total effect of the revolution in the field was sufficient to change materially the traditional content and practices of teaching and thus to arouse the suspicion and criticism of various outside interests.

Professor Alilunas' article gives an excellent summary of the controversies that followed. Every veteran social studies teacher will recall the attack by business interests on the Rugg textbooks and theories as un-American; the campaign by the National Association of Manufacturers to analyze and expose "anti-American" teachings in schoolbooks; and the *New York Times* American history test. Complicated by the surge of patriotic fervor during

the Second World War, the arguments over what should and should not be taught in the schools provided a maximum of heat but very little light.

The term "social studies" itself still carries an unpleasant connotation to many people who feel that it stands for a dilution of the traditions of scholarship. In some states, such as New Jersey, where the effects of the *Times* campaign were most successful, the old subject-matter terminology of "history," "geography," "civics," and so forth have replaced "social studies" almost entirely in the secondary schools, at least in dealing with pupils and the public. In fact, New Jersey law now requires two years of "United States History" for every secondary school pupil and the course must be so designated. At the moment the pendulum seems to have centered itself after a violent swing from one extreme to the other. There is little likelihood that it will remain motionless or that controversies in the field are a thing of the past. Too many people are deeply concerned with what children should be taught about the world around them. Both selfish and unselfish interests are involved and we can be sure only that Professor Alilunas' account of the struggle is not the final word.

THE MEANING OF DEMOCRACY

No matter how sure we may be that we know what democracy means and that we are trying to teach our pupils a love and respect for it, we need from time to time to reconsider its definition and connotations. There are few words in the language whose sense is as important yet as difficult to encompass clearly and surely. It is the despair of the science of semantics. Democracy is, of course, an idea and an ideal, not a physical entity. Its meaning is narrow or broad, static or living, very much according to the capacity of the thinker to grasp its implications. And so there is always a place for another analysis of democracy, another inspection of its values and limitations. There is much we have yet to learn about it, particularly if we are to teach it to other nations and our own future citizens.

Gerald W. Johnson, author of *Our English Heritage*, contributed to the September issue of *Harper's* an article on "Overloaded Democracy" which is well worth thought. His prin-

cial point is that people have come to look upon democracy as many things which it is not, and thus expect more of it than it should be expected to bear. He cites as an example the tendency of Americans to feel that democracy has suffered a damaging blow when the Russians ridicule it because a Negro is mobbed in the South or a Jew mistreated in the North. Mr. Johnson reminds us that democracy is not a system of law-enforcement and has nothing to do with individual cases of persecution. Democracy is not even a system of government; good government, law and order can exist in a democracy or even conceivably in a non-democracy, though neither fascist nor communist states have succeeded in proving the latter. Mr. Johnson is concerned with the practice of confusing democracy itself with every successful feature of our society or with every desirable attribute of goodness. "If democracy is identified with every form of righteousness, then whenever any form is defeated, democracy loses prestige. No system of government can make men moral, wise, or honest; and to expect the democratic system to do it is to doom that system to failure."

Democracy is not, says Mr. Johnson, a guarantee of equality and never was. "On the contrary, it is a guarantor of essential inequality, for its function is to release the talents with which men are endowed; and the moment talents are allowed full play men become unequal." All that democracy can do is guarantee equality before the law. There are superior men and inferior men. Power should rest with the former. All that democracy should be expected to do is give the superior man a chance to prove that he is superior, regardless of his origins. Therefore when a supporter of democracy proclaims the equality of all men he is asking democracy to support a falsehood which, it is impossible to maintain and its obvious falsity brings disrepute upon any system which tries to uphold it.

The many inequalities in the American way of life do not reflect discreditably upon democracy because except in the courts and at the ballot box democracy does not demand nor expect equality. Nor does any sensible American expect it. He knows that some are wiser,

stronger, more vigorous, luckier or more honest than others and no system of social relationships can equalize them except by force. True equality is conceivable only in a despotism where the despot can alter the lives and fortunes of all his subjects at his whim. All are equal in their insecurity. Perhaps in this sense the Russians have more equality than we, but we do not envy it and we ought not to seek to bring it about in the name of democracy. The stresses and struggles of a society where the superior can rise above the inferior are a far greater impetus to progress than the stagnation and stolidity of a society where artificial conditions of equality are imposed. The latter is not, and should never be, considered the function of democracy.

It is interesting to note that almost simultaneously with Mr. Johnson's article, Irwin Edman wrote a leading article for the *Saturday Review of Literature* for September 10 on practically the same subject. His point is that while we have been making a sort of cult or fetish of equality, we have within us an inherent desire to look up to somebody. We still have a tendency to defer to inherited wealth, to family prestige, to marked achievement, or even to academic degrees. There is an unspoken rebellion within us against the drabness of an egalitarian society which must of necessity be mediocre. It is the danger of this kind of equality, the regimentation of mass production, mass education and mass advertising, that Mr. Edman calls attention to. There is the growing danger that as the economic and cultural level of the inferior portion of the people is raised from a very low to a slightly better plane, this level will become the standard for everyone so that it will be embarrassing to maintain a higher one. Moral and cultural leaders will be few because men will be afraid to show qualities and interests so different from the mass pattern.

Mr. Edman seems to make the common error to which Mr. Johnson called attention. In discussing the dangers of a leveled-off society, a culture of leaderless mediocrity, he thinks of it as a "democratic" tendency, but one which he believes democracy may eventually avoid. As Gerald Johnson would immediately point out, any tendency toward a formless and featureless mediocrity is not the result of democratic ideas and has nothing to do with them.

This same leveling-down to the lowest common denominator is far more evident in totalitarian societies than in democracies. To confuse it with the ideal of democracy is to attribute to the latter a false meaning.

Democracy offers to everyone a free arena in which to exercise his talents and reveal his thoughts and abilities. It is the association of men that provides the race-course and protects the runners from interference; it does not try to handicap them so that the end of the race will see a photo-finish. A social system that tries to do that will eventually destroy itself as it destroys pride and ambition. How long would our track athletics exist as a sport under a handicapping system? No runner or jumper would continue voluntarily to exert himself to defeat an inferior opponent who had been given an initial advantage in order to equalize conditions. There is no branch of sports activity among humans where handicapping is used in serious competition. Nor can it succeed in society in general. Hence Mr. Johnson's point is well taken when he warns us not to confuse democracy with equality. To do so is to do it injury by association of ideas. If our society becomes regimented and without classes, it will be not because of democracy but because totalitarianism has overthrown democracy. We need a class society; we need to have our "bettters" to look up to. The only precaution must be that these classes are not rigid or hereditary. The function of democracy is to provide this flexibility, not to eliminate the classes.

DO WE NEED MORE MEN TEACHERS?

The Rotarian for September contained a group of brief articles on the question above which is one that has practical importance in nearly all public school systems. R. L. Hunt, editor of *The Phi Delta Kappan*, stated the case for trying to encourage more men to take up teaching careers, and four other educators from as many different countries gave their views on how this can be brought about. Mr. Hunt believes that the present 80-20 ration between women and men in the profession is detrimental to the welfare of the children. He points out that modern social conditions have changed in ways that now prevent many boys from having the father-son relationship that used to exist. In older days boys were more likely to help their

fathers in the latter's trade or business out of school hours and so learned how to work efficiently under a trained and sympathetic man. Families were larger then and so there were older brothers to guide and lead the younger. Today the boy's relationship with men is likely to be intermittent and casual, with little of training value in it. His daily contacts are mostly with women and of necessity lack the camaraderie and freedom which can exist between a boy and a man whom he likes and respects. Girls, too, need the experience in adolescence of getting along with older men. Their masculine social contacts should not be confined only to boys.

There is special value in male leadership for youth in these days of comic strips and blood-and-thunder radio and movie dramas, writes G. A. Wheable, superintendent of London, Ontario, schools. Modern boys and girls are apt to feel that "real" men must be either sports heroes or quick with a gun and a tough retort. This outlook could be given a healthy correction by the addition of more masculine influence to the schools.

Insecurity, low salaries and lack of opportunity for advancement have been the chief deterrents to men who might become teachers. Mr. Wheable points out that these obstacles are gradually being overcome. Consolidation of small units into larger ones creates more supervisory positions, and better salaries and pension plans make teaching more attractive to men. The increased professionalization of teaching will draw men into it. In this connection Mr. Wheable refers to the Teachers Professional Act which has been in effect for several years in Ontario. This law compels all teachers to belong to the Teachers' Federation, which has truly professional status. For example, it can recommend the suspension of a teacher's certificate for unprofessional conduct, and the latter includes accepting employment with a school board which does not adhere to Federation standards. This set-up is one which American teachers may well envy, for true professional status can only come when certification and teaching standards are controlled, at least to a large degree, by the teachers themselves. As long as they remain the function of governmental bodies and colleges rather than of

the classroom teachers they will continue to bear little relationship to real needs and conditions.

Notes Rajnath Kunzru of Agra, India, in commenting on Mr. Hunt's leading article, reported that the problem was the reverse in India. There a shortage of capable women teachers exists, which is especially important because there are few mixed schools. Kunzru agrees that a fair balance of the sexes is desirable in a school, but he is concerned with increasing the present proportion of women.

There seems to be evidence now in the United States that more young men are going seriously into teaching. This is unquestionably due in large part to the better economic status of the profession in the past three or four years. Administrators have in the past been frequently compelled to resort to subterfuges such as coaches' bonuses in order to obtain men for their faculties. As the level of basic salaries goes up, however, more and more capable men will become available. This will result not only in a better proportion of the sexes but should tend to raise the standard of quality among women teachers through the effect of stiffer competition.

NOTES

A report from the Long Island Social Studies Council indicates that that organization continues to be one of the most active of local groups. During the past year it conducted a "course on wheels" in which thirty-eight teachers made a series of trips to study environmental influences, such as new housing develop-

ments, historical sites, state agency activities, and so on. A course in international relations was sponsored and the sessions were held at Lake Success. Another activity was a social studies Fair, featuring all types of classroom materials and also teacher-made exhibits.

The group tour to explore the local region is, incidentally, a type of project well suited to social studies groups. Under competent leadership teachers can in this way become far better acquainted with the historical, economic and political features of the local scene than they are ever likely to do as individuals.

The Pan American Union has begun the publication of a new monthly magazine called *America*. It appears in English, Spanish and Portuguese editions and draws its contributors from all the member nations. It is devoted to portraying the daily life and activities of the nations, from sports to politics and literature. The subscription price is three dollars a year.

Unesco publications now include a new periodical, *The Quarterly Bulletin of Fundamental Education*. It is a magazine which describes some of the types of work being done throughout the world in the field of fundamental education—that is, aiding the illiterate and backward peoples. The *Unesco Courier*, the organization's monthly newspaper, has been given a more attractive format and is an excellent medium for interpreting *Unesco* to school classes. A year's subscription costs one dollar and may be ordered from the International Documents Service, Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, New York.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

Head, Department of Social Studies, Frankford High School, Philadelphia

Western Union: A Study of the Trend Toward European Unity. By Andrew and Frances Boyd. Washington, D. C.: Public Affairs Press, 1949. Pp. 183. \$3.00.

The movement for European unity is almost the only vital and creative force to emerge in Europe in the postwar period. The idea is, of course, not a new one. Dante advocated a united

Europe more than five hundred years ago. Aristide Briand, in his famous memorandum on European Federal Union in 1930, stated the problem in these words: "To unite in order to live and prosper; that is the imperious necessity which henceforth confronts the nations of Europe." Count Richard Coudenhove-Kalergi, who is still promoting this same idea, founded

his Pan-Europa movement as far back as 1922. But since the end of World War II the need for the closer integration of Europe has assumed an unprecedented urgency, and concrete steps have been taken to fulfill an ancient dream.

This study of "Western Union" was written under the auspices of the United Nations Association of Great Britain. It consists of only eighty-six pages of text, and of an appendix of about equal length—and, one might add, of about equal value. The first three chapters describe in barest outline the postwar situation in Europe; colonial aspects of "Western Union"; proposals for unifying Europe from Dante to Churchill, with particular emphasis on Briand's proposals in 1930; steps in the direction of the closer integration of Western Europe, notably the European Recovery Program, the Benelux and Franco-Italian customs unions, the Dunkirk Treaty of 1947 and the Brussels Treaty of 1948; and the interest of the United Nations in Europe. The fourth and final chapter contains useful information on the major European groups which are actively promoting the idea of European unity at the present time. These groups include the European Union of Federalists, the United Europe Movement, whose chairman is Winston Churchill, *Le Conseil Francais pour l'Europe Unie*, headed by Edouard Herriot, and the Independent League for European Co-operation, founded by Paul van Zeeland. In December, 1947, these four organizations formed a joint committee, known as the International Committee of the Movements for European Unity, and agreed to sponsor a Congress of Europe at The Hague in May, 1948. Two other organizations, the International Society for the United Socialist States of Europe and the European Parliamentary Union, also agreed to take part in The Hague Congress. While the groups working for European unity differ in many respects, all are agreed that a united Europe is not the final goal. "The aim of federalism," declared the European Union of Federalists in August, 1947, "is to establish a World Federal Government." But all groups insist that, in the words of a resolution of The Hague Congress, "the creation of a United Europe is an essential element in the creation of a united world."

Among the important documents in the appendices are Briand's memorandum on European Federal Union, which, as the authors correctly point out, "was not, in fact, a plan for federation, but for a much looser association of states"; Churchill's famous speech at Zurich in September, 1946; Bevin's "Western Union" speech in the House of Commons on January 22, 1948; the texts of the Dunkirk and Brussels treaties and of the Convention for European Economic Cooperation; and resolutions of the Montreux Conference of the European Union of Federalists in August, 1947, and of the Congress of Europe at The Hague.

Aside from its tantalizing brevity, this book has three marked defects. In the first place, it gives little attention to the very real obstacles in the way of European union. Secondly, the book was written in 1948, and does not cover events since the Congress of Europe at The Hague; hence it deals only with the beginning of the beginning of "the trend toward European unity." And finally, the publishers have not helped by using very fine print and poor quality paper, and at the same time charging a relatively high price for an unattractive volume.

Since this study was prepared, the statute of a Council of Europe has been drawn up and the first session of the Council has convened in Strasbourg. While this meeting may well be of historic importance, it is nevertheless, as Mr. Churchill said in his Zurich speech, but the "first step." *Western Union* is now a trend; it has yet to be translated into a reality.

NORMAN D. PALMER
University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Living in the City. By A. Elwood Adams and Edward Everett Walker. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1949. Pp. 216 Illustrated. \$1.96.

Living in the City is a comprehensive study of the problems, weaknesses, strengths, and reforms existing in the leading cities of the United States. This is an intelligent analysis, not a criticism or condemnation of any particular city or cities. In the language of the junior or senior high school student Adams and Walker present the results of their extensive research in such aspects of city life as transportation, food, housing, special services

(public health, police protection, fire prevention), business, educational agencies, recreation, and government. Not only does the book interpret trends and changes but it attempts to look into the future in the chapter entitled "Planning the Cities of the Future."

The work is not burdened by an overabundance of statistics, but necessary and pertinent facts are woven in with most entertaining reading material. The many pictorial illustrations will enliven the text for the young reader, whereas the word list at the end of each chapter, which gives the definition and pronunciation of each word, will further the student's understanding.

The greatest value of the book lies in the guides to further investigation. The authors have aroused the student's interest through chapter discussions and then added "The Chapter You Are to Write." In this supplementary section problems for activity and discussion are brought before the student in order to introduce projects which will involve looking behind the local scene. Thus the investigator will paint for himself an over-all picture of his community, one which could not otherwise be included in a book of this size, and will have available facts to be compared with those of other civic centers.

A book list, a list of audio-visual aids, and an appendix of population data complete the text.

The authors have recommended the book for junior high or senior high levels. Probably it will be better adapted to the junior high grades. The student should find enjoyable reading and informative material in *Living in the City*.

BERTHA HIRZEL

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Lansdale, Pennsylvania

The Press and the Constitution. 1931—1947.

By J. Edward Gerald. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1948. Pp. 173. \$4.00.

In this distraught era of stress and strain, it is imperative that we view clearly and realistically the dangers to our democratic institutions from the insensate philosophy of governmental omnipotence. Especially sensitive to the impact of the totalitarian concept of government are the essential media of communica-

tion, particularly the press. In this heavily laden study, Mr. Gerald undertakes to explore the development of Constitutional law doctrines as they apply to the press since the momentous Supreme Court Case of *Near vs. Minnesota* in 1931. Though a multiplicity of state court decisions are analyzed by the author, his primary objective is to trace the convolutions of the Supreme Court in defining the boundaries of freedom of the press in an environment of ideological conflict and social change.

The author has had to oversimplify grave constitutional phenomena in his analysis. It is practically impossible to give justice to such a weighty subject as the press and the law in only 173 pages. The need for more minute examination of some of the Supreme Court cases listed is plainly obvious. The author's inclusion of too much subject matter is clearly evident. He has at times stretched the meaning of freedom of the press to limits which are not warranted by the facts of the situation.

However in the final analysis, these deficiencies are not so glaring as to deny this study a proper place among the literature of Constitutional Law and the Bill of Rights.

SAMUEL ABRAHAMS

Columbia University
New York City

Contemporary Foreign Governments. By Associates in Government, Department of Social Sciences. United States Military Academy. Revised Edition. New York: Rinehart and Company, Incorporated, 1949. Pp. 482. \$3.75.

This book is the eighth and considerably enlarged edition (482 pages against 362 in 1946) of a well known college text in the field of comparative government, the authors of which three years ago were H. Beukema, W. M. Geer and Associates. Each of the chapters on the governments of Great Britain, France, Italy, Germany, USSR., Japan, as well as the especially broadened last chapter on National Security and International Organization, is written by two authors; the book as a whole is edited by H. Beukema and J. D. F. Phillips.

The authors are convinced that educators "can give the student an awareness and understanding of the political world in which he lives, thus fortifying his allegiance to demo-

eratic values." They express their hope that the material presented in the book will enable the student to arrive at "sound value judgments on those major policies, domestic and foreign, which mark the course of postwar political development."

While the taking of sides in the ideological conflict in the world today is not avoided, rivaling political systems are treated with objectivity. A more elaborate treatment of differing ideologies in addition to or at the expense of the detailed presentation and analysis of governmental structures might have been justified. The internal political development of the various countries since the end of the second world war is lucidly and adequately dealt with and the space allotted justified also on the basis of the student's natural interest in current affairs. Correspondingly, the account of political and international events of the war years, told in detail in the previous edition, has been considerably condensed.

As a whole this newly revised text is a valuable addition to the books on foreign governments on the market and will, because of the clarity of its presentation and its readability, continue to answer teaching needs in this field in one-semester courses and, in combination with outside reading assignments, also for one-year courses.

ALFRED D. LOW

Associate Professor
Marietta College, Ohio

Historical Fiction and Other Reading References for Classes in Junior and Senior High Schools. By Hannah Logasa. Philadelphia, Pa.: The McKinley Publishing Company, 1949. New and enlarged edition. Pp. 232. \$3.50.

This book should prove to be an invaluable aid to history teachers who are seeking materials for pupil guidance in extra-class reading. To librarians and teachers of Latin, English, and foreign languages, the book also has a wealth of suggestion for stimulating interest in the historical and cultural backgrounds of various nations and peoples.

In her introductory remarks, the author, Miss Logasa, gives a fine exposition of the value of using historical fiction to supplement the factual content of the social science program. She

feels that for many students the facts of past history, as they are gathered from textbooks, remain abstract, dry, and lifeless. However, if the student can visualize the past, and it becomes real in his mind, the lessons which history teaches will not be lost. Miss Logasa freely admits that the skillful teacher or the student gifted with imagination may not need any aids. "But," she states, "with the average teacher in the average school, there can be little doubt that the historical novel may become a great aid to the effective teaching of history."

The material in the volume is arranged in annotated lists, covering these fields: Ancient History, Medieval and Modern Europe, Canada, Latin America, and United States History. An appendix produces an unusual collection of source materials for the "Islands of the Sea."

Each list is divided into two sections. First are the stories or imaginative writings. These, arranged alphabetically by the author's name, give the approximate year of the story, the name of the publisher, the date and place of publication, and brief comments on the historical period represented. The second part is entitled Biography, Narrative, and Topical Account. This part is factual. Put up in the manner of the fiction list, it affords the teacher a fine bibliography of materials for each century.

This volume of *Historical Fiction* is the enlarged and revised fourth edition of the work. It contains 900 new titles and omits 300 other titles not because they are no longer important but to make room for newer material. The "Islands of the Sea" list has been added since these small areas have assumed increasing importance today because of their political, geographic, and economic possibilities.

With its carefully-arranged lists and the wealth of suggestion for utilizing fiction, this book is a real find for the conscientious teacher of social sciences.

EMMA G. WEBER

School Librarian
Huntingdon, Pennsylvania

The White Man's Peace. By No-Yong Park. Boston: Meador Publishing Company, 1948. Pp. 252. \$3.00.

According to the author, *The White Man's Peace* analyzes and evaluates the role played

by the Western nations, past and present, in the making of world peace, and inquires whether the great Western powers can create a perpetual peace.

The book contains a categorical discussion of the white man's attempts to establish peace among nations. Coming in for consideration here are pacifism, disarmament, universal religion, universal education, economic reforms, democracy, conquest and domination, balance of power, spheres of influence, isolationism, preparedness and of course, the League of Nations and the United Nations.

This is a book which should have a place in every college library. It will prove helpful to all who seek to be informed with reference to world affairs. The frequent touches of humor assist in holding the reader's attention.

J. F. SANTEE

Oregon College of Education
Monmouth, Oregon

HELPFUL CLASSROOM AIDS GENERAL

Teaching History with Records: In the American Tradition. Decca Records. Album, number A. 394-29M. Price: \$3.47. Includes Thomas Jefferson—First Inaugural Address; Abraham Lincoln—Second Inaugural Address; Woodrow Wilson—Address to Peace Conference in Paris; Franklin D. Roosevelt—First War Message.

PAMPHLETS

Using Our Land Wisely: A Resource Unit for Intermediate Grades.

Prepared by the Curriculum Department of the Seattle Schools, Washington.

Distributed free upon application.

Pamphlets are available on the Netherlands. Write Information Bureau, 10 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y. Free

Study Helps in History. By Adams Book Company, New York City. Price 30 cents per copy:

Book 1 *Ancient and Medieval Times*

2 *American History 1492-1789*

3 *American History 1789-1865*

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An excellent evaluation of the work that John Marshall accomplished in the constitutional development of the United States.

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